DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 358 041 SP 034 333

AUTHOR	Nelson, Doug, Ed.; Smith, S. Harold, Ed.
TITLE	Intermountain Leisure Symposium Proceedings (12th, Provo, Utah, November 21, 1991).
INSTITUTION	Brigham Young Univ., Provo, Utah.
PUB DATE	91
NOTE	147p.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC06 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Administration; Adults; *Community Services; Financial Support; Legal Problems; *Parks; Planning; *Playgrounds; Play Therapy; *Recreation; *Recreational Activities; Recreationists; Urban Programs
IDENTIFIERS	*Leisure Services; Russia; Survival Education; Wilderness

ABSTRACT

This report includes papers submitted by 23 presenters at a conference on recreation and leisure programs, facilities, and management. Titles of the papers are as follows: (1) "Trends in Parks and Recreation Masterplan Development" (C. W. Kelsey); (2) "Play Therapy: Implications to Recreation" (G. Bader); (3) "Wilderness Therapy" (J. T. Banks and B. Olsen); (4) "Impact of Generational Differences on Developing and Delivering Services" (T. S. Catherall); (5) "The Quantity of Time: Recreation, the Quantity of Time, and the Quality of Life" (J. T. Dixon); (6) "Soviet City Parks" (D. L. Dustin); (7) "Play It Again--Someone! They Haven't Got It Straight Yet: What's Recreation?" (M. Glancy); (8) "Dynamic Assessment: An Activity-Based Research Model for Peak Experience Research" (S. R. Gray and H. R. Gray); (9) "Art for the Elderly" (S. R. Gray); (10) "Project Playpark: Cooperative Playground Construction" (S. Gray); (11) "Extension of the Direct/Indirect Management Approach to Outdoor Recreation Management" (B. Hendricks); (12) "Scaring Up Money" (A. G. Humphreys); (13) "The Exposition Industry: New Opportunities for Parks and Recreation" (A. Jones); (14) "Change and the Future" (D. D. McLean and R. V. Russell); (15) "Managing User Conflicts: A Growing Challenge for Outdoor Recreation Managers" (D. C. Nelson); (16) "Financial Resource Adaptation Model (FRAM)" (G. Oles and T. Larson); (17) "The ECOEE Experience" (G. Oles); (18) "Graduate Placement! Fact or Fiction" (B. Olsen and T. Hansen); (19) "Leisure, Envy, Deviance: The Negative Sanction and Discord" (J. C. Peterson); (20) "Designing and Administering an Effective Performance Appraisal Instrument" (M. Phelan); (21) "Legal Rights and Obligations of Universities, Students and Employers" (C. T. Thorstenson); (22) "Assessing the Net Economic Impact of a Large-Scale Special Event" (D. M. Turco); and (23) "Starting Your Own Recreation Business" (M. V. Griend). A partial bibliography of survival literature and seven brief research abstracts are also included. (AMH)

ED358041

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

S. M. Smith

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

PREFACE

It is our pleasure to present these proceedings from the 1991 12th Intermountain Leisure Symposium (ILS). The papers again present a breadth of issues ranging from current trends and research issues to sociological and emerging perspectives. This interesting array of thought should be a challenge to the thinking of the practitioner, the educator, and the lay person. We hope that you enjoy this material in your personal piece of the world.

Sponsorship of the ILS is shared by Brigham Young University, University of Utah, Utah State University, the Utah Recreation and Park Association, and the Utah Therapeutic Recreation Association. The 1991 symposium was hosted by Brigham Young University under the co-directorship of Mr. Doug Nelson and Dr. S. Harold Smith. We are pleased to announce that the 1992 ILS will be held in Logan, Utah and hosted by Utah State University.

We express grateful appreciation to all who have made the 1991 ILS and these proceedings a great success.

Doug Nelson, Co-Editor

S. Harold Smith, Co-Editor

2TH ANNUAL INTERMOUNTAIN LEISURE SYMPOSIUM SCHEDULE

lovember 21, 1991--Brigham Young University Conference Center

Time/Room	2265	2267	2277	2287	2295	2285
8:30 to 9:20	Who's Suing Whom: A Look at Legal Implications of Student Internships. Clark Thorstenson, Ph.D. Brigham Young University	Play it Again Someone! They Haven't Got it Straight Yet: What's Recreation? Maureen Glancy, Ph.D. San Jose State University	Putting Therapy Back into Recreation Therapy. Ellen Gooch, MA/TRS Provo Canyon School	Leisure, Envy, Deviance, the Negative Sanction and Discord. James C. Peterson,Ph.D. Cameron University	Project Playpark: Cooperative Playground Construction. Steven Gray, Ph.D., California State University Sacramento	Extension of the Direct/Indirect Management Approach to Outdoor Recreation Management Bill Hendricks, University of Utah
9:30 to 10:20	KEYNOTE ADDRESS (AUDITORIUM): Craig Kelsey Ph.D. University of New Mexico					
10:30 to 11:20	The Haunted Woods: The Production and Marketing of a Major Special Event. Glen Humphries, Ph.D. Curator/Director, Wheeler Historic Farm	The Impact of Generational Differences in Developing and Delivering Services Tom Catherall, Ed.D. Brigham Young University	Adventure-Based Counseling and Self-Esteem Enhancement. Rick Otvos, MA/TRS, Benchmark Regional Hospital	Financial Resouce Adaptation Model (FRAM) Gordon Oles and Trent Larsen, Doctoral Candidates, University of New Mexico	The Exposition Industry: New Opportunities for Recreation Students. Art Jones, Ph.D., Utah State University	MAC-ing Sense of Program Management Russ Collett, Alpine District Community School
11:20 to 1:20	LUNCHEON AND ENTERTAINMENT: 2258 AND 2260					
1:30 to 2:20	Change and the Future. Daniel McLean, Ph.D. Indiana University	Avoiding Litigation in Rating Employee's Performance. Michael Phelan, West Georgia College	Experiential Learning at Badger Creek Jerry Jex and Steve Kugath, Ricks College	The ECOEE Experience Gordon Oles, Doctoral Candidate, University of New Mexico	ILS RESEARCH SESSION	URPA Board Meeting
2:30 to 3:20	Utah Parks Reservation System. Mike McConvill, Utah State Parks and Recreation	Outdoor Education: The 10 minute walk construct. Gary Willden, Ed.D. Weber State University	Youth at Risk: Wilderness Therapy--Programs and Problems Doug Nelson, Brigham Young University	Internally Speaking: A frank discussion about student internships USU Students	ILS RESEARCH SESSION (CONT'D)	

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Keynote Address

Trends in Parks and Recreation Masterplan Development 1
Craig W. Kelsey

Articles

Play Therapy: Implications to Recreation 5
Gwen Bader

Wilderness Therapy. 10
John T. Banks and Burton Olsen

Impact of Generational Differences on Developing and Delivering Services . 14
Thomas S. Catherall

The Quantity of Time Recreation, The Quantity of Time, and the Quality of Life 22
Jesse T. Dixon

Soviet City Parks 26
Daniel L. Dustin

Play It Again--Someone! They Haven't Got It Straight Yet: What's Recreation 29
Maureen Glancy

Dynamic Assessment An Activity-Based Research Model for Peak Experience Research 40
Sharon R. Gray and Howard R. Gray

Art for the Elderly 44
Sharon R. Gray

Project Playpark: Cooperative Playground Construction 48
Steve Gray

Extension of the Direct/Indirect Management Approach to Outdoor Recreation Management 50
Bill Hendricks

Scaring Up Money 60
A. Glen Humphreys

The Exposition Industry: New Opportunities for Parks and Recreation 63
Art Jones

Change and the Future 67
Daniel D. McLean and Ruth V. Russell

Managing User Conflicts: A Growing Challenge for Outdoor Recreation Managers 71
Douglas C. Nelson

Financial Resource Adaptation Model (FRAM) 76
Gordon Oles and Trent Larson

The ECOEE Experience 84
Gordon Oles

Graduate Placement! Fact or Fiction 87
Burton Olsen and Tom Hansen

Leisure, Envy, Deviance the Negative Sanction and Discord 91
James C. Peterson

Designing and Administering an Effective Performance Appraisal Instrument . 97
Michael Phelan

Legal Rights and Obligations of Universities, Students and Employers . . 108
Clark T. Thorstenson

Assessing the Net Economic Impact of a Large-Scale Special Event 111
Douglas M. Turco

Starting Your Own Recreation Business 119
Mike Vander Griend

Research Abstracts

The Application of Multiple Methods in Festivals and Special Events 127
Linda S. Ralston

Assessing the Net Economic Impact of a Large Scale Special Event 128
Douglas M. Turco

Job Announcement Content Analysis in Commercial Recreation & Tourism . . .129
John Crossley

An Investigation of the Displacement Hypothesis in Outdoor Recreation . . .130
A. Joseph Arave

Visual Screening and Information Access in Visual Preferences
For Near-View Forest Scenes 131
Edward J. Ruddell

An Examination of the Physiological Response of Institutionalized
Older Adult Residents to Television Content 132
Connie Scholten

Explanation of Variance in Daily Experience Using the Flow Model 133
Gary D. Ellis, Judith E. Voelkl, Catherine Morris

KEYNOTE ADDRESS

Trends in Parks and Recreation Masterplan Development

Craig W. Kelsey, University of New Mexico

A seasoned parks and recreation professional recognizes the significance of their agency's parks and recreation masterplan. The document, which has been prepared on behalf of the agency, charts the growth, direction and agency agenda for the next few years. It is hopefully binding through regulation in an effort to keep the agency current with the needs of its citizenry. It is the recommendations found in a well-prepared and bias-free masterplan, which allows the agency some level of autonomy, so that changes in elected officials and hence, changes in agency emphasis, do not occur. Additionally, each member of the parks and recreation staff can visualize which facilities, resources and programs should be emphasized in the future and what type of fiscal resources have been pledged toward those activities.

Masterplan Outline

A typical, yet comprehensive, parks and recreation masterplan will consist of at least seven (7) sections, each lending logic and understanding to the document. Though additional sections may be added to a masterplan to add strength or adjust for local needs, rarely should a masterplan consist of less than the following key factors.

I. The Parks and Recreation Agency

This first section is introductory in nature and should include a section dealing with the history of the community, the parks and recreation movement and any other significant piece of information, which places the agency in the historical context of the community. Also included in this section should be the mission, goals and objectives of the parks and recreation agency and the department organizational structure, which is in place to help reach this agency mission.

II. Parks and Recreation Resources

The second section should be a report on the amount, type and condition of the park and recreation program, facilities and resources provided to the citizens by the parks and recreation agency. This up-to-date inventory should identify all of the recognized and used resources, as well as those which are available for future development.

It is generally an easy task to identify the parks, playgrounds, ball fields, pools and picnic tables provided; and likewise, it should be easy to collect information on the types of programs, such as sports, arts, tournaments and the like that the agency provides. The reason for this inventory is rather obvious. How can an agency make recommendations for future resources if the agency is not clear as to their current offerings. A slightly more difficult task, however, is to also collect information regarding the resources and programs that other agencies provide, which might impact on your agency's need to provide similar offerings in the future.

Certainly government agencies, such as city, county, state and federal agencies provide items which might overlay this resource and program base and are available to your citizenry. Further, public schools, private businesses, volunteer and church-related organizations might also have significant offerings.

III. The Target Population

A third section of the masterplan should consist of a report, which analyzes the population the agency is obligated to serve. Once again, the reason for detailing information about this target population would seem rather clear. It is this group whose needs the agency attempts to meet. The types of information needed about the target group would include the past population growth pattern (has it been gradually or perhaps rapidly increasing or decreasing); the current distribution of the population (in what geographic areas of the community do the residents live and are there pockets of these residents); and what is the projected growth pattern for the population (is the community expected to grow, slow down, plateau and at what rate). Also needed is the demographic profile of the residents. What is the current and projected ages, incomes, ethnicity, educational levels and gender of the population. These demographic patterns are very helpful in understanding the type of current and future user base.

IV. Parks and Recreation Demand

A fourth section of the masterplan, and in many plans, the most significant element deals with what demand there is for certain parks and recreation resources and programs. The demand is a reflection of citizen interest, desire and generally speaking, assumed need. The demand for current and future programs and resources is usually developed from one or all of the following measures: a random citizen survey is conducted throughout the community querying residents regarding the key items of current and future participation and desires; a second approach is gathering information from public input meetings, where the citizen may come and verbally express their desires; the third approach is to tally the participation statistics of the currently provided programs and resources and to observe what trends the statistics suggest. Each of these approaches offer value. The random citizen survey gives all residents an equal mathematical chance of expressing their views. The public input meeting, though not random in the type of attendees, does focus on needs of great community interest. The participation statistics should serve as some indicator of desire for a specific activity.

V. National Comparisons

The fifth section provides a reflection of whatever relationship exists between the currently provided resources and programs and generally accepted state, regional or national benchmarks, measures or comparisons. The National Recreation Park Association has prepared "space standards" or a recommended number of facilities per population per distance. A community can compare their offerings against this standard to obtain some idea of relative standing. For example, a community has a population of 30,000 residents and the city parks and recreation department provides 12 Tennis courts. Twelve tennis courts may be a lot or very little for the population. One way to get a focus on this issue is to compare the tennis court offering to national space standards. The NRPA recommended standard is one tennis court per 2,000 residents; therefore, this community is at 80% of the national standard (30,000 - by 2,000 = 15, 12 is 80% of 15). This process can be followed for virtually all resource-based facilities, but not for programs. One way to get a relative measure of program offerings is to interview communities of similar size and demographics and to obtain and then compare program offerings. Programs are offered as a very sensitive measure of

local interest; and, therefore, national comparisons are difficult to make.

VI. Agency Action Plans

The sixth section of the masterplan is one of a significant shift. The previous sections have been data gathering in nature and the agency action plan section is one of data interpretation and analysis. Here the masterplan provides specific recommendations for what resources and programs are needed in the future, based upon the goals of the agency, what resources and programs are currently provided, what the population user-group future is, the populations desire for current and future resources and how the offerings compare to national or local standards. This section is difficult to prepare, should be based on the realized factors of the community, not political agendas or special interest group pressures and should reflect the realistic direction for the future. The more specific the action statements, the more measurable the achievement of the action, but also the more direct pressure on appointed and elected officials of the community. The more general the action statement, the greater the likelihood that compromise and misunderstanding may emerge as solutions to the future needs of the community.

VII. Cost and Funding

The seventh and last section of the masterplan should consist of an analysis of the cost of the recommended actions suggested in the action plan. It is important to know what a specific project will cost, the cost in the future and what funding mechanisms seem appropriate to meet the costs of the actions. This section has particular purpose because the governing authorities of the community, if they adopt the masterplan by resolution, will have bound the budget to the costs identified in this section. If a recommendation is for a new city outdoor swimming pool, then cost estimates can be rendered from the city engineers office, from local construction companies, sister communities which have just completed a similar project, and from national sponsorship organizations, such as the American Aquatic Association. Also important is to determine what types of funding strategies could be utilized to defray the costs of the project. Typical sources include general funds, special taxes, mill levies, grants, bonds, use fees and the like.

Trends in Masterplan Development

There are ten issues, which seem to be emerging in the area of masterplan development, that have remained rather constant over time and appear to be trends rather than faddish upsurges. These trends deal more with how the masterplan is prepared, developed and executed than what the main focus points of a traditional masterplan is.

Specifically:

Trends

1. Consultant sub-contracting: there appears to be a move to sub-contract the masterplan to consultants, thus reducing the financial burden of a full time staff focus.

2. Reduction in document size: more recent plans are much shorter in length, less detailed with facts and figures and more summary in nature.

3. Visual appearance of document: more energy is going into plans that use color, photographic, color print and glossy material for visual impact.

4. Controversy over the use of space standards verses "quality of use" of facilities.

5. Plans are becoming more strategic: The masterplan is being utilized to move the entire organization into the future rather than just client programs or facilities.

6. Economic impact element: more and more plans are projecting both economic costs and recoveries.

7. Public input push: a concerted effort to involve all groups into the decision-making process, taking more time and effort to identify and consult all groups of users and non-users.

8. Environmental Impact Overlay: greater discussion on the environmental consequences of suggested future plans.

9. Frequency of plans: a move to change plan development from ten years to five years with yearly updates and direction measures.

10. Legality of plans: there appears a slight upsurge in calling masterplans into legal debate when some user groups are not satisfied.

Trends, of course, are subject to many local influences and it is not always clear if a trend is valuable until superimposed on that local circumstance. However, trends usually come about in an effort to improve methodology, and, hence, the planning process.

ARTICLES

Play Therapy: Implications to Recreation

Gwen Bader, Brigham Young University

> Play is an essential part of childhood and the basic learning modality of the preschool child, an activity in which children may learn many things which may be as important as those they learn in school. Through play a child may learn a host of physical, social, and intellectual skills. Play provides opportunities for the child to acquire moral principles related to such values as justice, honesty, and sharing. Play also allows the child to develop his capacities for planning and organization and to express his great need for creativity and imagination. The child develops, in large part, through play from infancy on. The opportunities which our society provides children for healthy recreation experiences is of vast importance in promoting their total development. (Joint Commission, 1969)

Play introduces a child into society. It is the child's natural method of self-expression and communication. Through play a child acts out his innermost feelings, develops social relationships and explores new roles. It is the vehicle a child uses to share his world with other people. (Dimmick and Huff, 1970)

According to Axline, (1969) Play has no goal, it is pursued for its own sake and if it has any emotion associated with it, it is the emotion of joy. Dramatic play leads to a process of personality build-up so that the child emerges as a more complete and better integrated individual.

Play Therapy

Because of the significance of play in the development of the child, the importance of observing play to learn about children and to understand them cannot be overlooked. The techniques of play therapy evolved because of a child's inability to express himself adequately on a verbal level (Lazaraus,1977). Play therapy provides the child the opportunity to experience growth under the most favorable conditions. A typical play therapy session will allow the child the freedom to, without inhibition, express himself through the various forms of play. Since play is the natural medium for self-expression, the child is given the opportunity to play out their feeling of tension, frustration, insecurity, aggression, fear, bewilderment or confusion. In playing out these feelings the child brings them to the surface, gets them out in the open, faces them, learns to control or abandons them. Play therapy fosters every child's inner drive towards self-realization, maturity, fulfillment and independence (Axline, 1969).

History of Play Therapy

Play therapy traces its origins to the advocation of Rousseau in the eighteenth century that the teacher be involved in the child's world of play as a technique for understanding and aiding the child. His philosophy was that the most effective means of reaching the child was through the vehicle of play. (Ward, 1980)

The first use of play in a therapeutic context was the classical child analysis case of Little Hans by Sigmund Freud. Freud saw Hans only one time for a brief visit and conducted the treatment by advising Hans' father of ways to respond based on the father's notes about Hans' play. (Ward, 1980; Landreth, 1987)

In the early 1920's Melanie Klein began to employ the technique of play as a means of analysing children under six. She assumed the child's play was as

motivationally determined as the free association of adults. Play provided direct access to the child's subconscious. (Ward, 1980; Landreth, 1987) Not long after this Anna Freud published her formulation of classical Freudian theory as applied to child therapy. Unlike Klein her approach emphasized the importance of developing an emotional relationship between the therapist and the child before interpreting the motivation behind the child's drawings and play. The Freudian approach to play therapy emphasized the child's inherited physical, intellectual and emotional qualities. The play therapy experience consisted of:

1. Careful observations
2. Investment of meaning into the child's play.
3. Interpretation of this "meaning" of play to the child.
4. Increased understanding or insight of the child's own behavior.
5. Use of this understanding to develop more adaptive behaviors.

The ultimate aim was discovery of the true self and release from an inner friction that was diverting energy from more creative endeavors. (Ward, 1980; Landreth, 1987)

In the 1930's a second major development took place in play therapy as, separately, Levy and Solomon developed structured play therapy programs for children who had experienced a specific traumatic event or were acting out (Landreth, 1987). The third major development of play therapy took place when the work of Rank, Allen and Taft produced the relationship therapy approach. Major emphasis was placed on the therapist-child relationship. The hypothesis being the relationship possessed curative power (Landreth, 1987). Virginia Axline successfully applied non-directive therapy principles to children in play therapy for the fourth major development in the play therapy field. (Landreth, 1987)

The fifth major development in play therapy took place in the 1960's with the establishment of guidance and counseling programs in elementary schools. Up until this time the literature on play therapy indicated that its use was limited to the private practitioner, focusing on treatment of maladjusted children. With the addition of counselors to the elementary schools the use of play therapy in the school setting was encouraged, to help meet a broad range of developmental needs.(Landreth, 1987) Dimmick and Huff (1970) suggest that until children reach a level of facility with verbal communication that allows them to express themselves fully and effectively to others, the use of play materials is mandatory if significant communication is to take place between child and counselor.

Techniques and Guidelines

Therapists differ in their opinions as to whether play should be controlled or free. Levy, a supporter of the structured play program, decides the probable cause of the child's present problem and then selects definite toys that he feels the child can use to work out his conflicts. (Lazarus, 1977) A free choice of materials is insisted upon be Axline and Moustakas. All equipment is available for each child to use as he pleases, and the playroom is set up in the same way for all children. This theory indicates that the therapist may not be aware of the problem the child is working through. (Lazarus, 1977)

Both free and controlled play seem to have merits in assisting a child to work through their problems. Success from a variety of methods indicates that, in the area of play therapy, a counselor has the prerogative to use their own discretion and select methods which they are comfortable with.

Differences in play therapy techniques reflect variation in philosophy, training, experience and skill. The underlying objective of play therapy is not to solve the problem, but to assist in the development of the child. The

following objectives are appropriate regardless of the theoretical orientation of the counselor:

1. Establish an atmosphere of safety for the child. Children will discover safety in the development of a relationship that contains limits and consistency.

2. Understand and accept the child's world. Acceptance and understanding are conveyed through genuine interest in what the child chooses to do, and from the ability to look at things from the child's perspective.

3. Encourage the expression of the child's emotional world, without judgement or evaluation.

4. Establish a feeling of permissiveness. This is not total permissiveness, but freedom allowing the child to make their own choices.

5. Facilitate decision making by the child. This is accomplished largely by refusing to be an answer source for the child. The child must make choices about what color of paint to use, or whether to play in the sandbox or with the doll house.

6. Provide the child with an opportunity to assume responsibility and to develop a feeling of control. Doing things for a child that has the ability to do those things deprives the child of what it feels like to be responsible. It is important that the child feel in control.

7. Put into words what is experienced and observed in the child's behavior, words, feelings and actions. As the therapist labels the emotions the child is being given an additional means of communication. (Landbreth, 1987)

Research and Control Studies

Literature abounds with case histories and comments about the success of play therapy. There is however a distinct lack of research investigating the effectiveness of play as developmental therapy and of the value of play therapy in relation to other therapeutic procedures. General studies investigating play therapy have resulted in the following conclusions:

1. Non-directive play therapy is an objective, measurable process.

2. Children's emotional expressions are altered discernably as a result of the play therapy.

3. Maturation of the child is related to the type of expression of therapeutic change. (Koplitz, 1968)

Possibly the most published case study in the area of child development theories and a working knowledge of play therapy. (Carey, 1990; Weinrib, 1983) The miniatures selected, the way the sand is shaped, the overall cohesiveness of the picture and the interactions with the therapist reveal the unconscious contents of the psyche. (Carey, 1990)

The "Tears in Diamond" treatment program evolved between 1979-1986 on the Children's Inpatient Ward of the McAuley Neuropsychiatric Institute of St. Mary's Hospital and Medical Center in San Francisco, as a method of dealing with child psychic trauma. The program used sandplay and storytelling metaphors as a means of communication on a deep level. (Miller and Boe, 1990)

In many psychic trauma case such as abandonment, deprivation, neglect, physical abuse, an/or incest, the parent is the actual perpetrator of the trauma, creating an additional barrier, often forcing the child into seclusion. The

abused child becomes fragmented trying to separate the good from the bad (Miller and Boe, 1990).

Linda, claiming physical and sexual abuse by her father, was able to express her experience through sandplay, something she could not fully formulate with words.

> Linda placed several houses and a church with a steeple in one sandtray. A little girl was playing by jumping happily over the buildings, but she suddenly landed with legs spread apart on top of the church steeple, becoming impaled. No words were spoken and the play was discontinued abruptly. The suddenness of the shift in play allowed the therapist to experience the suddenness of abuse. The church like the father, is supposed to protect, but here it became the abuser. (Miller and Boe, 1990)

The "Tears in Diamonds" treatment program was part of a many-faceted approach used to turn trauma into healing. The intimate sharing of the deep metaphorical experiences of childhood had a significant effect on all participants, staff and patients. (Miller and Boe, 1990)

Another study done in a hospital setting compared the effects of play on the psychosocial adjustment of 46 children hospitalized for acute illness. These children were placed in one of four groups; therapeutic play, diversionary play, verbal support and no treatment. Therapeutic play has often been credited with helping children regain control, express feeling of anxiety and prepare for medical events. (Rae, Worchel, Upchurch, Sanner, & Daniel, 1989) In this study children were involved in a non-directive child-centered play therapy that included reflection and interpretations of feelings. Play materials were selected to facilitate the expression of aggression, fantasies and fears associated with hospitalization. Play utilizing both medical and non-medical materials was encouraged (Rae, Worchel, Upchurch, Sanner, & Daniel, 1989).

"The study revealed a significant reduction in children's self reports of hospital fears following two 30-minute sessions of nondirective child-centered play therapy." (Rae, Worchel, Upchurch, Sanner, & Daniel, 1989) Although the authors reported that the study documented the effectiveness of a therapeutic play program in decreasing the level of self-reported hospital fears for a group of pediatric patients they also indicated that further research was needed to present a more specified account of the actual treatment approaches so that the program could be replicated.

Because Therapeutic play is based on developmental principles it has become an important tool for the elementary school counselor. By using play therapy counselors convey to the children their willingness to accept them the way they are. Through spontaneous play activities children express their fears, frustrations, concerns and hopes. The therapeutic play time allows them to express themselves fully at their own pace with assurance that they will be understood and accepted. (Landreth, 1987)

Conclusions

As has been evidenced, play therapy facilitates in a wide variety of settings, the healing of wounds that have blocked normal development. It serves as a facilitator in the development of a stable ego, allowing children to express themselves fully, with the assurance that they will be understood and accepted. The underlying philosophy of play therapy and the recreation/leisure professional are, I believe, very similar: to facilitate in the total growth and development of the individual. Because of this similarity in philosophy and the success of play therapy in aiding in the growth of a child, skill in using play therapy is an essential tool for the recreation/leisure professional to develop.

References

Axline, Virginia. (1969). Play Therapy. New York: Ballantine Books, Inc.

Carey, Lois. (1990). "Sandplay with a Troubled Child." The Arts in Psychotherapy, pp. 17, 197-209.

Dimmick, Kenneth and Huff, Vaughn. (1970). Child Counselling. USA: William C. Brown Co. Pubs.

Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children. (1970). Crisis in Child Mental Health: Challenge for the 1970's. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Koplitz, Eugene (Ed.). (1968). Guidance in the Elementary School. Theory, Research, Practice. Iowa: William C. Brown Co. Pubs.

Landreth, Garry. (1987). "Play Therapy: Facilitative Use of Child's Play in Elementary School Counseling." Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 21, pp. 253-261.

Lazarus, Richard. (1970). Therapeutic Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.

Miller, Carol and Boe, John. (1990). "Tears Into Diamonds: Transformation of Child Psychic Trauma through Sandplay and Storytelling." The Arts in Psychotherapy, 17, pp. 197-209.

Tae, W., Worchel, F., Upchurch, J., Sanner, J., & Daniel, C. "The Psychosocial Impact of Play on Hospitalized Children." Journal of Pediatric Psychology, 14, pp. 617-627.

War, L. (1980). "Play Therapy." In Faculty of Education, University of Alberta, Play Manual, pp. 20-42. Edmonton, Alberta: University of Alberta Publication Services.

Weinrib, Estelle. (1983). Images of the Self. Boston, Mass: Sigo Press.

Wilderness Therapy

John T. Banks and Burton Olsen, Brigham Young University

The Problem

Recent complaints about one of the wilderness programs in Utah has brought to the forefront many problems facing these programs. During the time that the complaints were made, two girls died in separate programs, each within a few days of entering. Michelle Sutton, 15, died on the virgin expedition of Summit Quest. Weeks later Kristin Chase, 16, died after three days in Challenger. Autopsies showed that heat exertion was the cause of both deaths (Utah Holiday, 1990).

Investigations revealed several problems in the Challenger program: (1) there were no proper medical procedure for emergencies (2) the staff was undertrained in handling difficulties; (3) the ratio of staff to participant was far from adequate; (4) participants were forced to go; (5) food and water allocations were terribly low; and (6) there were signs of verbal and physical abuse. These are only some of the problems facing wilderness programs today (Jackson, 1991).

Wilderness therapy or survival programs are wet up to help troubled teens. Common elements among such programs are: a wilderness setting, a written or implied philosophy that emphasizes the desirability of understanding one's weaknesses and strengths, relationship to nature, and the use of controlled stress situations to promote positive changes in the individual of his or her social functions. These positive changes are accomplished by creating a mentally challenging or physically strenuous task for the participant, who must confront his or her feat to complete. Successful completion of the task brings about positive psychological changes in the participant. (Noll & Wilpers, 1975).

The History

The Outward Bound program is widely recognized as the first survival program of the twentieth century. Kurt Hahn, the founder of the program, voiced his concern about the increasing aimlessness of youth, their lack of involvement, and their failure to mature into whole adults. Hahn's concepts of learning one' capabilities in the physical, mental, and spiritual realm was thought to stretch a person to full stature. (Rhudy, 1979)

In 1967, Larry Olsen initiated a two-week survival course at Brigham Young University. He expanded this program into a twenty-eight day survival course (Degler, 1984). BYU ended its wilderness survival courses, but many of the persons involved in those programs have created programs of their own. Larry Olsen now directs the Anasazi Wilderness Camp from Payson, Arizona. Nine other programs have evolved from the original BYU program in the past two years (Arment, 1990).

One theory used to explain delinquency and guidance intervention focuses on environmental variables. The general position is that the source of delinquent behavior is not found in the youth but in their environment (Davidson, 1900). Wilderness programs got their start because of the position of delinquency and guidance intervention. The concept was to remove the individual from his or her own environment and focus on the here and now.

Early studies of the wilderness therapy programs showed great success. reports showed improvements in self-concept, self-esteem self-confidence, and related variables. (Authur, 1976; Gaston, 1978; Greentree, 1977; Kaplan, 1974; Lambert, 1978; Porter, 1978; Reid, 1980; Risk, 1979; Robbins, 1976; Slosky, 1973; Stimpson, 1970). These reports related a decrease in psychopathology, decreased anxiety, decreased recidivism rates in juvenile offenders, decreased reliance on public assistance and decreased involvement with drugs and alcohol. In addition,

they reported improved social skills, group cohesiveness, improved attitude towards others, improved grade point average, and increased relaxation (ibid).

Janiece Pompa, a clinical psychological consultant for Wasatch Canyon School and Charter Hospital, says, "The outdoors provides therapeutic change." (Utah Holiday, 1990). She ways studies showed that a week-long youth program increased self-esteem among participants, especially among girls, both immediately and a month later (ibid). This is not difficult with a reasonable youth population. Confronting anti social children about their behavior is necessary and valuable, but if confrontation becomes verbal or physical abuse, it may damage the children and compound their problems (ibid).

By their nature all wilderness programs are physically austere. pompa says, "There is a fine line between pressing to the limits of physical safety and providing just another backpacking trip with plenty of food and water" (ibid). This fine line troubles parents and authorities today What are healthy hardships and torture? The question needs answering now.

In a special KUTV news report, Sheila Hamilton investigated the outcome for Challenger participants. Only 25 percent of the participants in the Challenger program said that the experience had benefitted them. Another 25 percent said they couldn't sense any difference, and 50 percent said that the program had definitely not been beneficial and even been harmful in many instances (Hamilton, 1990).

Why is there such a high failure rate today, when the early programs were so successful? Two major differences between the earlier and more recent program appear to be at fault. First, in the earlier programs, participants were there voluntarily. Today many kids are literally handcuffed and taken from their homes. The parents give their approval, but many children don't. Second, the longest of the earlier programs was 28 days. Today, the shortest length in utah is 42 days. Some programs have a policy that allows a child to be re-entered in the program. If improvement has not occurred, no charge is made until the age 18. Some youth spend up to six months or more in these programs (Utah Holiday, 1990).

Money has also contributed to many problems within the wilderness program. many parents are not able to send or allow their youth to participate because the cost of participation is so high. Yet, on the other side, the agencies have tremendous overhead costs that come from staffing, transportation, insurance, equipment, etc. Challenger alone brought in over 3 million dollars last year. The cost for a 42 day wilderness program was $8,500. The highest was Challenger at $15,900 for 63 days (Utah Holiday, 1990).

Potential Resolution

Wilderness programs have a place in helping of troubled teens; however, changes mush be made. Changes have been made following the deaths of Michelle Sutton and Kristin Chase. In previous programs, parents have given permission to act in behalf of their children. Law enforcement agencies were not allowed to take children from the programs or intervene in any way. a law requiring the licensing of wilderness programs went into effect July 1, 1990. law enforcement officers can now make sure things are being run properly. Kristin Chase died three days after this law went into effect (Jackson, 1991.)

Summit Quest has been issued an injunction. This program is not allowed to function until it meets the criteria established by Nevada laws. Many states, including Utah, are now looking at guidelines and licensing procedures for their wilderness programs. Guidelines will ensure proper medical care given, a staff of qualified personnel, and a ratio of staff to participants no less than one to four (Jackson, 1991). New laws will provide adequate supplies for program participants.

The Authors' Analysis

With new licensing laws established, I believe we will see fewer wilderness programs, but the remaining programs will be of higher quality. In my opinion, may of the current programs focus on high profits rather than helping troubled teens. If prices are any indication, programs should be able to provide excellent care of their participants. However, some programs are interested only in money. There percentages of success rates don't justify the programs especially at such high prices.

One way to achieve a higher success rate is through a thorough screening process. These programs can certainly help some individuals. Negative outcomes will be reduced if the potential participants could be screened. We believe that it is the parents' responsibility to teach and train their children at home. Parents shouldn't leave it up to someone else to raise their child. Mother and fathers, if they do the job right, are the best teachers children can have.

Upon analyzing data, reading reports, and interviewing may people, we would question whether or not to send a child on such a trip. I f a problem exists among and/or between parents and their child, more time, energy and better education need to be put forth to help resolve conflict.

References

Alford, M. (1987.). Wilderness Survival Guide. Edmonds: Washington. Alaska Northwest Publishing Company.

Arment, . (1990). The Bowl Drill Solution. Utah Holiday. September 1990, pp. 60, 62, 62

Arthur, M. (1976). Survival Experiences as Therapy: An Appraisal. Leisurability. pp. 3-10

Davidson, W.S., Redner, R., Amdur, R.C., & Mitchell, C.M. (1990). Alternative Treatments For Troubled Youth: The Case of Diversion from the Justice System. Plenum Press, New York: New York

Degler, B. (1984). The Wilderness Survival Experience: An Agentive Perspective. (Master Project. Brigham Young University, 1984).

Gaston, D.W. (1979). An evaluation of the Connecticut wilderness school: A wilderness challenge program for predelinquent and delinquent teenagers (Doctoral dissertation, the University of Connecticut, 1978). Dissertations Abstracts International. 40.

Greentree, I.S. (1978). Wilderness challenge training: The impact of programmed environmental adversity upon adult self-actualization and interpersonal behavior. (Doctoral dissertation, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International. 39.

Hamilton, S. (1990). After the Desert. A KUTV news special aired September 1990 on the Challenger wilderness program. Salt Lake City, Utah.

Jackson, M. (1991). Personal interview conducted by John Banks. M. Jackson is the Kane County Sheriff who investigated the death of Kristin Chase in 1990.

Kaplan, R. (1974). Some psychological benefits of an outdoor challenge program. Environment and Behavior. pp. 101-116.

Lambert, M.J., Segger, J.F., Staley, J.S., Spencer, B., & Nelson, D. Reported self-concept and self-actualizing value changes as a function of academic

classes with wilderness experience. Perceptual and Motor Skills. pp. 1035-1040.

Noll, J. & Wilper, M. (1975). Wilderness Adventure training as an alternative to incarceration. In C. Dodge (ed), A Nation Without Prisons. Lexington, MA.

Porter, W.W. (1978). Intervention analysis of a therapeutic wilderness program (Doctoral dissertation, University of Denver, 1978(. Dissertation Abstracts International. 39.

Reid, W.H., & Matthews, W.M. (1980). A wilderness experience treatment program for antisocial offenders. International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology. 14. pp. 222-230

Rhudy, E. (1979). An Alternative to Outward Bound Programs. Journal of Physical Education and Recreation. pp. 26-27

Risk, P.M., (1977). Effects of an experimental wilderness survival experience on self-concept, personality, and values (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International. 37.

Robbins, S.K. (1976(. Outdoor wilderness survival and its psychological and sociological effects upon students in changing human behavior. (Doctoral dissertation, Brigham Young University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International. 37.

Slosky, R.J., (1974). Wilderness experience: A therapeutic modality (Doctoral dissertation, California School of Professional Psychology, 1973). Dissertation Abstracts International. 34.

Stimpson, D.V., & Pederson, D.M., (1970). Effects of a survival training experience upon evaluation of self and others for underachieving high school students. Perceptual Motor Skills. 31. pp. 337-338.

"Utah's Challenger Disaster." Utah Holiday September 1990, pp. 54-63, 65 & 86.

The Impact of Generational Differences on Developing and Delivering Services.

Thomas S. Catherall, Brigham Young University

What is your approach to program planning? Is it reactive or proactive? Reactive persons develop programs as trends. They offer programs that are fashionable, for example, they set up high adventure activities and risk programs for the elderly because they heard about it at a conference or it has appeared to be popular in other places. Later they discover they have missed the "wave" of popularity or, they design a skate board facility because there appears to be an abundance of skateboarders on the city sidewalks, but they can't sell enough memberships or admission tickets to break even.

Proactive planners on the other hand, attempt to forecast what will be popular within a given age population or geographic area. Proactive programs seem to have the right activities at the appropriate time and for the correct population.

How can you be that knowledgeable about your publics, or how can you do a good job of forecasting without frequenting the local palm readers or crystal ball gazers? We seem to be in such a fluid society that is not only changing often, but changing at an accelerating rate.

Age Group Changes

Most of us have the capability to observe the changes in age group populations. We note the changing trends and fashions as well as philosophies of people and adjust our programs to be more applicable. Often it is the youth group that we observe and react to the most. Some positive observations are noted, often negative ones are voices; "It wasn't like that when I was a kid" or "When my kids were young they would never get away with that."

If you observe the changes in age groupings, i.e. how seniors act now compared to ten years ago, or what the current parenting trends are as compared to one or two decades ago, you are still "reacting." By the time you observe the difference, or by the time it has become a national trend, it might be too late for your organization to react to it with timely services. For example, it wasn't until much of the decade of the 1970s was over, that we recognized it as the narcissistic "Me Decade," or do you remember the inability of the national youth organizations to recognize the 60's as an anti-institution decade for everyone, not just the college students. Youth organizations nation-wide lost at least a third of their membership during the late 1960's and early 1970's and today they still blame it on poor management and flaws in the program.

Rather than monitoring the changes that occur over time in the age clusters of the population, such as watching changes in college age students over the past 50 years, it is more accurate to watch the changes of a generation of people as they pass through the various stages of life. William Strauss and Neil Howe have done just that in their new book, *Generations, The History of America's Future, 1584 to 2069*. They observe the generations passing through childhood to the rising adult stage, to mid-lifers in their 40s and 50s and finally becoming elders. This observation has shown a repetitive pattern which would help professionals in Recreation and Youth Leadership provide both better and more timely services. It would also help us historically to explain various reactions we have had to programs in our past and possible steps or remedial action which could rectify problems coming in our future.

Generations

In their book, Strauss and Howe have identified four generational cycles, each beginning approximately every 20-25 years. Children grow up and become

parents of a new generation. Each generation also has a mood or characteristics about it that differentiates it from the proceeding and succeeding generations. These four as labeled by Strauss and Howe are: Idealistic, Reactive, Civic and Adaptive. Each generation gives rise to the next in the order listed and have repeated in this same order throughout the history of this country. Eighteen generations have experienced life in America since the First idealist generation of Puritans began here in the 1600s. Those idealists were followed by a Reactive generation of Cavaliers which in turn were followed by generation upon generation until we have the situation in the 20th century which shows remarkably similar characteristics to the ancestral generations 300 years ago. Each generation is also unique, but when you eliminate the social trends that are unique to their day such as rising living standards, increased population, and impact of technology, similar dramas are being acted out with each repeating generation. Idealist trend to be prophetic, Reactive generations a little roguish, Civics are heroic and Adaptives live a "genteel lifecycle of expertise and amelioration."

Not only is a new generation begun every 20-25 years, but each generation cycles through four distinguishable life-cycles. They begin with the cycle of childhood which encompasses ages 0-21. This is followed by the Rising Adult cycle of ages 22-43 and then Mid-lifers at ages 44-65 which are followed at the end of the cycle by Elderhood, ages 65+. In the cycle the four generations move through the four age groupings on a diagonal as shown in Fig. 1. Each generation also generates a mood as it begins life and is nurtured by the generations that preceded it.

In the examples shown in Fig. 2 follow the Civic generation known as the G.I. generation. It was born in the first 20 years of this century and grew up as protected youth. In their parenting years as Rising Adults they were seen as heroic participants of the depression and WWII. They became powerful Mid-lifers through the 60's and were the target of the indulged idealistic youth of that period. Now as Elders this generation is seen as busy.

In a similar fashion, the Idealists born between 1943 and 1960 who have been identified as the Boom generation, experienced an indulged youth which led to the narcissistic Rising Adult years (remember the "Me decade" of the 1970s). Boomers are now Mid-lifers and are seen as moralistic, championing the causes of Earth First, Save the Whales and Rain Forests, etc. They are not unlike the moralistic generation that occurred four generation before when prohibition was introduced. As the boomers reach Elderhood they will become visionary senior citizens as were the seniors during the depression and WWII.

The situation we experience today presents us with a generation of Millennialists being born, the Reactive 13ers (named so because they are the 13th generation to live under the American Flag) becoming parents in the Rising Adult age cluster, Boomers reaching Mid-Life and the Silent generation are the Elders. This is similar to the situation prior to WWI when the generations were the G.I.s, Lost, Missionaries, and Progressives. The atmosphere at that time was much like it is now..

> ..frustration was mounting over a supposed loss of community, civility, and sense of national direction. Then as now, the nation's leaders engaged in a diplomatic dither over how to design an interdependent and legalistic new world order while new armies massed and old hatreds festered. Then as now, feminism was gaining serious political power, moralistic attacks were growing against substance abuse, and family life was seen as precious but threatened.

The national mood in 1991 could also be compared to the moods of the 1840s, 1750s and 1650s because in each of those eras the generations were aligned the same in each of the age clusters. This type of grouping Howe and Strauss refer to as a constellation. As generations move from one age cluster to another, the

constellation changes. Two transition periods are especially noteworthy since they create dramatic national changes. They are labeled the Spiritual Awakening and Secular Crises.

The history of our own century provides us with a good example. The Secular Crises occurs during the twenty year span as a Civic generation moves through the Rising Adult age cluster. While they are at this pint a Reactive generation is in national leadership as a Mid-life group and the Idealistic is experiencing a visionary Elderhood. The years 1925-1942 produced just such a constellation in America. The G.I. generation (Civic) were Rising Adults in a heroic posture. The Reactive Lost generation were pragmatic leaders ready to resolve problems rather than postpone them which is the case with an Adaptive generation. This Reactive Generation in national leadership were the children of the previous Idealists who brought about the previous Spiritual Awakening in the form of the Missionary Awakening of the 1880s. The crises confronted this century was the depression and WWII. Four generations before a similar constellation faced the Civil War, and four generations before that it was the Revolutionary War.

The Spiritual Awakening of the twentieth century, known as the Boom Awakening, occurred between 1961 and 1981 as a result of an Idealist generation passing through the Rising Adult age grouping with an Adaptive generation ahead of it in national leadership. The preceding awakenings began with the Puritan awakening, followed by the Great awakening of the early 1700s which produced many great religious leaders and new American religions. Now came the Transcendental awakening which brought us Brigham Young, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Frederick Douglass and John Brown. The last awakening before the Boomers was the Missionary Awakening at the turn of the century that produced Greenwich Village, Christian Socialism and the Bible Belt.

Providing Services

Strauss and Howe dedicate a large portion of their book to discussing how observing the generational cycles can help us anticipate the national mood in the future. More helpful to us as providers of services in Recreation and Youth Leadership are these discussions about the characteristics of the persons in each of the age groupings and how those characteristics mature as the generations pass through their life cycles.

The 1990s and Beyond

With the fading presence of G.I.s, public confidence in old institutions will wane even further. Child nurture will become stricter and the protective function of schools and neighborhoods will attract growing support. Senior citizen movements will weaken and the child lobby strengthen. Boomers will reorganize the justice system so it will punish aberrant behavior with growing severity and overtones of moral retribution; Boomer re-tooled institutions will strictly regulate conduct (from drug use to parenting) that was formerly regarded as matters of personal choice.

During the 1990s three distinct generational cultures will emerge. When elders, the Silent will struggle to buttress and defend their pluralist culture - an emphasis on lifestyle tolerance, economic opportunity, and process protected fairness. These efforts will peak before 1990s and then decline steeply. Displacing the Silent will be the Boom's moralistic culture - and emphasis on ethical absolutes, community values, and accountability in public and private life. Meanwhile, 13ers will advance into Rising Adulthood engaged in an alienated culture - an emphasis on getting what you can, without excuses, in a world that (as they then see it) never cared about giving them much.

What is left of the G.I. Generation will be moving into post Elderhood - their lives have always been filled with activity and "getting things done" and as they age, it will be depressing to them but they will try to keep their spirits up. Those in failing health will move from senior only condos into member run planned care facilities - modern G.I. generation concepts of the "Nursing home" of the Lost generation. Their peer society will remain as friendly and collegial as ever.

Government/G.I. relations will continue to be as supportive as ever as they move past 80. Needs for the senior citizen will shift from the 60 year-olds to the 80 year-olds with concern for long term care and access to life-extending technologies. Financial support will be easy to generate and will, as always, be underestimated. In addition, this contribution where it once was seen as investment in the future will now be seen as consumption. The G.I. generation will demand an endowment from society to make it comfortable in its old age. Boomers will be willing to fork out high social security taxes without any hope of material return because they see it as gaining independence from their parents and an opportunity to redefine social values without interference from their politically powerful elders.

The Silent generation will move into Elderhood as the wealthiest class to ever do so. Where in the 1960s a 35 year-old typically lived in a bigger house and drove a better car than his/her 65 year old parents, in the year 2000 the opposite will be true. And the Silent generation will feel guilty about it. They did nothing like the G.I. generation to serve it. Their contributions (civil rights, sexual liberation, etc.) are not the type to entitle pecuniary rewards. Benefits for the elderly will be liable for cutting, estate taxes will increase because their wealth is less earned than the G.I. wealth. The Silent generation is self doubting, pluralist, other directed and compromising and will therefore allow this type of cutting to occur.

Silent generation members do not enjoy the collegiality of the G.I. generation, instead they will look for social activities that bring them in contact with youth and adventure. Great numbers will use their time, talent and money to help others at home and overseas. Much like the Peace Corps, they will organize Senior Corps. Their generous gifts and bequests will usher in a golden age of private philanthropy. No more senior citizen discounts - they will see them as unfair - and younger generations will agree. The Elder Silent generation will support more new taxes to help the younger.

Silent generation members will not want to separate, as the G.I.s, from society. They will want to stay actively engaged with the Boom-dominated community. Retirement ages of 65 will increase to 70 on their demand so they can continue to participate in the world of the young. Many will leave retirement and join the workplace in people oriented service jobs for the sake of service not for money. "Senior only" living communities will become more uncommon and controversial. Where Boomers were perfectly happy when G.I.s chose to separate, they will see it as reprehensible if the Silent generation chooses to do the same. And the name Senior Citizen will not fit them nor be the word of choice form them. They will feel more like partners or sympathetic upperclassmen wanting to be just called seniors. They will prefer nicknames which evoke memories of the 50s like "Granddaddio" or "Old Bopper."

Senior only tours will drop drastically, being replaced by grandparents and grandchild programs. The new elders will act, dress, think, and look younger. With younger people they will ride rapids, climb mountains, hack through jungles, and parachute from planes. They will be the epitome of what Faith Popcorn calls Down-Aging. The extended family will return with the children moving back into the large empty house and possible even moving the parents out of the master bedroom into a smaller one upstairs. Parents will do so willingly, placing much

less emphasis on the value of living alone in a big home than did their G.I. predecessors.

Silent authors will attack the art of grandparenting with a zeal much like they attacked the art of sex in the 1960s . They will make it the subject of movies, books, plays, songs and paintings. They will professionalize it with seminars, consultants and global conferences. In the end when their health fails they will be reluctant to enter care facilities which will bring a surge in at-home elder care.

Serving Mid-lifers

The Mid-life group made up of Boomers will be pompous, intolerant, uncompromising, snoopy and exacting of others. At the same time they will become more dutiful, principled, and demanding of themselves. As Boomers re-tool institutions they will take leadership positions in institutions both local and national. Once they have control of the leadership they will attack the untouchable of prior generations. They will tax consumption, regulate leisure, and intrude into matters of personal and business privacy. All this will be coupled with cries of community value over self interest.

This highly consumptive market will demand quality over quantity, uniqueness over comfort and inner satisfaction over outer popularity. Boomers will seek ways to express their defiance of material urges while still indulging in them - for example, by using mail-order and home-delivery services that allow them to buy without stooping to shop.

The Boom elite will carefully maintain individual identities apart from institutions. Many a Boomer will work for a corporation and have a business (or profit-making hobby) on the side. The Boomers hightech home offices will have the same individuating effect on the American workplace that the Missionaries' automobiles had on the American community. Feeling in control of their choices, Mid-lifers will make career switches easily causing turnover to rise in top-level jobs.

Boomers will seek the classical and enduring over the faddishly popular, they will begin to challenge sex, profanity and violence in the media and will get results. They will strike blow after blow against tobacco - taxing, restricting, and humiliating anyone involved in its production and use. the firearms industry will fare better thanks to the fact that the Boom will not dislike violence per se, just meaningless (i.e. 13er) violence. Boomer civic and religious leaders will reestablish moral principles and will police the world of youth activities with far greater attention to ends than means. The emphasis will be to "force" youth to build character, which the Civic youth will willingly accept.

Servicing the 13er

Throughout American history, the nastiest one-part generational feuds have been between Mid-lifer Idealists and Rising Reactives. Idealists invariably come to look upon younger Reactives as a wild, soulless, and "bad" generation-while Reactives see older Idealists as pompous, authoritarian, and more than a little dangerous. It last became the "roar" of the 1920s.

The generational cycles are hard on the Reactives (13ers) as they enter adulthood. There is always some generation aimed tragedy which strikes them. It could be a youth depleting military campaign, the AIDS virus running rampant through their generation, or simply an economic downturn. They work more for less buying power and start life with greater tax burdens and debt than any other generation. It is difficult for them to enjoy the quality of life they enjoyed as teenagers and many will boomerang back into their parental homes.

13ers in business will be much like 13ers in athletics. Pay will be market-driven and the reward will go to those that can produce year to year results rather than lifetime achievement. Athletes who can fill arenas and businessmen who can close the sale will make fantastic sums. At the other edge, plodding journeymen will lose ground and attract little public sympathy when they fail. The fun in sports will have a brassy quality, more akin to pure entertainment rather that civic ritual. Boomers will look upon 13ers as gladiators and will pointedly urge Millennial children to look elsewhere for role models.

The economy for the 13ers generation will cause them to be transient, looking for whatever jobs they can find to survive. They will fill jobs that their elders will look upon as piratical, opportunist, even traitorous. They have never been attracted to public service or the nurturing professions, instead, whatever their careers, they will aim for opportunities with a bottom line. Agencies depending on whatever their careers, they will aim for opportunities with a bottom line. Agencies depending on volunteerism would do well in the next 20 years to look to older Americans for help. Like all rising adult Reactives before them, they will see themselves as nomads driven by necessity in a world whose economic harshness is not their fault.

Crime will naturally rise as the gang wars being waged now escalate into gangster activities much like the 20s and 30s, and once Boomer judges go to work, this will become the most permanently jailed and executed generation in America. The Reactives greatest skills will go relatively unnoticed: the capacity to observe, to identify unmet needs, to be "smooth" and conceal feelings when necessary, to move quickly when the moment is right, and to make sure that whatever people try does in fact work as intended.

They will be reluctant to play by the Boomer rules and will embrace what might be called the lottery ticket mentality. The will be prepared to risk a loss for a tiny chance to win big. They are known as great risk takers. 13ers will turn away from infidelity and divorce and find stability in family life which often begins in Silent homes. They will eventually tire from risk taking and become more conservative in their private lives. They will blossom into America's leading generation of shoppers and will have an enormous influence on products, styles and advertising. The sales message to them should be bluntness over subtlety, action over words, physical over cerebral. Messages will hint at 13er alienation and appeal to a sense of dark humor, and often be anti-Boom.

Serving the Millennial Youth

America's mothers and fathers are today giving birth to the nation's next great Civic generation. They will be polite, patriotic, technologist with a penchant for service and teamwork. There is only one condition on their expected greatness, the secular crisis they meet as rising adults must turn out well.

With Boomers as mid-life educators and with laws in place to improve the education system, test scores will soar and American students will gradually improve their standing in comparison to Japanese and European students who consistently outscored 13ers. The renewed family focus of the 13ers and strictness of the Boomers will generate a protective society aimed directly at producing a clean cut protected Millennial youth. The wildness of the 13ers will serve as examples of what not to do. Under the toughness of Boom laws and no-kidding moral standards, teen pathologies - truancy, substance abuse, crime, suicide, unwed pregnancy - will all decline.

Teen music will become more ballad-like, wholesome and singable, with top tunes appealing to all generations. Sexual relations will become more romantic and friendly as compared to the physical, matter-of-fact sex of the 13ers. Community institutions (schools, libraries, churches, police) will become increasingly important in a child's life. Scout programs will be revitalized and

new ones formed. Teen employment will sharply decline or be curtailed by Boom laws as Millennial adolescents spend more time studying, practicing, and organizing with some socially useful purpose in view. Child television viewing will decline, and what they do watch will be salted with moral lessons. Universities will provide new government-aided types of tuition financial assistance, linked to the performance of public service before, during, or after college. And these colleges will see a new breed of freshmen who show a great talent for student politics, athletic teamwork, with majors in math and science.

Boomers will enact laws making it mandatory for everyone to give a period of time in their youth to serve in uniform. Millennial youth will not mind, but rather see it as an opportunity to prove their civic virtue. Bonds between Boomer Mid-lifers and Millennial youth are the strongest of any generational cycle. Strangely enough, the Millennialists will be raised and taught the same characteristics and values by the Boomers that the G.I. generation exhibited which caused the Boomers to rebel in the late 1960s.

Summary

Generational cycles provide a tremendous amount of data that service providers should use when projecting plans for growth, budget, programs and staff. The discussions in this article only review the expectations for the next 20 years. Long range planning must look beyond that, but the future is not darkened to us. The past provides ample indicators of what we could expect. But, we must first read about our past, analyze it and apply it or it serves no purpose at all.

References

Faith Popcorn, The Popcorn Report, (New York, Doubleday, 1991) p. 56 ff.

William Strauss and Neil Howe, Generations, The History of America's Future, 1584 to 2069, (New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc, 1991).

William Strauss and Neil Howe, "The Cycle of Generations," American Demographics, April 1991, p.31.

Generation Cycles in the Twentieth Century

	1920	1942	1964	1986
ELDER Age 66-87	sensitive (Adaptive)	visionary (Idealistic)	reclusive (Reactive)	busy (Civic)
MIDLIFE Age44-65	moralistic (Idealistic)	pragmatic (Reactive)	powerful (Civic)	indecisive (Adaptive)
RISING Age22-43	alienated (Reactive)	heroic (Civic)	conformist (Adaptive)	narcissistic (Idealistic)
YOUTH Age 0-21	protected (Civic)	suffocated (Adaptive)	indulged (Idealistic)	criticized (Reactive)

Figure 1.

Generation Cycles by Ages

	1901-1924	1925-1942	1943-1960	1961-1981	1982-2003
ELDER Age 66-87	sensitive (Progressive)	visionary (Missionary)	reclusive (Lost)	busy (G.I.)	sensitive (Silent)
MIDLIFE Age44-65	moralistic (Missionary)	pragmatic (Lost)	powerful (G.I.)	indecisive (Silent)	moralistic (Boom)
RISING Age22-43	alienated (Lost)	heroic (G.I.)	conformist (Silent)	narcissistic (Boom)	alienated (13er)
YOUTH Age 0-21	protected (G.I.)	suffocated (Silent)	indulged (Boom)	criticized (13er)	protected (Millennial)

Figure 2.

The Quantity of Time
Recreation, the Quantity of Time, and the Quality of Life

Jesse T. Dixon, San Diego State University

Traditionally, the concept of work associated economy with time. Wages were commonly paid by the hour and people often measured the value of a job by the time that was necessary to complete it. The technology of society has resulted in numerous time-saving devices. Money may be used to buy time-saving devices, therefore; money can conceivably be translated into time (Clawson and Knetsch, 1966). The phrase "time is money" is still popular today. Occupational technology is repeatedly aimed at increasing work efficiency within smaller frames of time. For example, people install telephones and fax machines in their automobiles in an effort to be productive. In a sense, these people are capturing work time in what would otherwise be commute time. It is interesting to note that in spite of the increased consciousness for quality time, people are still very concerned about the quantity of time. With the "high tech" orientation of society, one might predict a payoff of increased leisure time for the masses.

The Expanding Emphasis of the Quantity of Time

Millard Faught (1970) predicted that society would soon be facing a three day work week. He suggested that people would experience "timewealth" with the increase in non-obligated time. Timewealth would be significant because the change would be more unobligated time. Linder (1970) suggested that some people would find it difficult to support the call for more unobligated time. More leisure time might mean less productivity for a nation, an economy, etc. Both authors agreed, however; it would mean more useful time.

Activities that range from enjoying a cup of coffee to playing a round of golf would not be satisfying if people did not have an adequate quantity of time to enjoy them. Experience is a finite process that consumes time. The quantity of time is an important variable in determining the value of leisure activity for people.

In recent years, authors have reported that the average work week has increased to 46 hours per week. Unobligated time has decreased since 1984. There are greater numbers of people expressing their dissatisfaction with work (Ellis, 1988). The ratio of people who consider leisure time more important than work time has nearly reversed since 1985 (Tindell, 1991). In interviews, people complain that they do not have enough time. One author humorously suggests that time could end up being in the '90s what money was to the '80s (Gibbs, 1989).

Time as a Possession

Sessoms (1984) noted that after World War II, leisure time became equal to work time in status. He explains that work, as an end in itself, was questioned. Time is still being recognized as a valuable possession (Tindell, 1991).

The concept of achieving "quality time" was commonly used in the '80s to suggest that despite time limits, people were experiencing a good quality of life (Chubb & Chubb, 1981,p.144). Today, more people are suggesting that the quantity of time is an important factor in determining their quality of life. Ironically, people are finding that it is difficult to "buy" more time. In spite of experiencing quality time, some people are significantly disappointed in the quantity of their unobligated time (Ellis, 1988; Tindell, 1991).

The Issue and Action of Choices

Linder (1979) suggests that the compulsion is a psychological issue. He argues that the average worker in a rich country experiences the pressure of

time. Claws on and Knetsch (1966) suggest that the competition for available time will become more severe. In short, there is a fixed limit on the hours of the day. It would also seem that there are perceived minimum quantities of time for enjoying specific leisure activities (Chubb & Chubb, 1981). For example, an 18 hole round of golf may require a minimum time allotment in order for a participant to choose that activity. Similarly, the decision to watch a movie may be based upon the quantity of time necessary to view the entire movie.

People will be faced with making choices that impact their quantity of leisure time. For many years, "time management" has been used to help people organize their schedules. Gibbs (1989) and Tindell (1991) suggest that management strategies have contributed to the "option overload." In other words, people may perceive so many choices, they do not feel they have enough time.

The Power of Choice

Ironically, "choice" appears to be a key factor in determining the quantity of leisure time people experience. It is an internal and unstable causal attribution. The action of choice will be determined by the individual and is subject to change.

For example, people may select or change careers to increase their leisure time. Vocational behavior may reflect a personal commitment to leisure time. In other words, value clarification and decision-making skills may become very popular topics again as part of education and career planning.

The Influence of Values

The use of choice as an extension of personal values will also be a future issue. People may want to use their choices as statements of their values and goals. For example, people may choose to spend more available time in leisure activities with their families or friends. These types of choices may not be "counterproductive" to occupations or careers. Instead, the participants may feel more connected with their family and friends as part of a positive lifestyle.

The perceived shortage of unobligated time signals the concern of people to live beyond their work within the time frame of their life. The choice of people to protect or expand their leisure will be an indication of what people want in their lives. The concern for the quantity of unobligated time is already a factor influencing environmental planning and recreation services.

Professional Issues

Suburban Life

Joel Garreau (1991) identifies a new type of suburbia called edge cities. He suggests that miniature cities are developing along freeways on the edge of cities. Business complexes are built near residential complexes and the resulting communities appear to be almost self contained. Physically, the cities have fewer sidewalks than a normal city. The office buildings are not shoulder to shoulder. They generally appear to be surrounded by greens, hills, ponds, and jogging trails. Garreau observes that people are attracted to the convenience of short commutes and preplanned recreation facilities. The quantity of unobligated time is a factor for people in choosing to live in edge cities. Professional services will have to consider this trend if commercial recreation is going to be successful. Commercial and community-based recreation programs could market the convenient and time-saving characteristics of their services if people are conscious of the scarcity of unobligated time.

The quantity of unobligated time may also be an issue in clinical recreation services. Therapeutic recreation literature has placed a distinct emphasis on the quality of experience within a frame of time. Concerns for quality assurance related to clinical services for handicapped people include the amount of time available for recreation. Realistically, professionals schedule time with their patients or clients and are expected to facilitate leisure satisfaction within specific time limits. Quality assurance procedures demand professional accountability for this issue.

Diagnostic related groupings (DRGs) have consistently reduced the amount of service time available to patients. If the quantity of time is a determinant in facilitating leisure satisfaction, professionals will be severely challenged to be successful in the future. Defining success and reducing long- term insurance costs may include facilitating the patient or client to choose constructive recreation rather than over-obligated lifestyles.

Conclusion

The quantity of time necessary for a positive quality of life will be a significant service issue in the '90s. This issue has already led to well-known cocooning behavior in families and has recently contributed to the rise of edge cities in urban settings. People are sensitive to the convenience of recreation services within the home and can be attracted to preplanned recreation communities. In the future, recreation professionals will be expected to provide services which expand as well as improve the unobligated time of their clients.

Time is a finite issue in relation to choices people make concerning recreation participation (Chubb & Chubb, 1981). Recreation professionals may want to market their services with considerations for the value people hold for unobligated time (Tindell, 1991). The quantity of unobligated time and the value of its planned use may be important issues to people living in the '90s. The future development of urban settings and the success of professional recreation programming may be significantly influenced by these issues.

References

Chubb, M. & Chubb, H. (1981). One third of our time. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Clawson, M. & Knetsch, J. (1974). Leisure in modern America. In J. Murphy (Ed.), Concepts of leisure (pp. 78-100). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Ellis, M. (1988). The business of physical education. Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics Publishers.

Taught, M. (1974). Living with timewealth. In J. Murphy (Ed.), Concepts of leisure. (pp. 236-245). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Garreau, J. (1991). Edge city. New York: Doubleday.

Gibbs, N. (April 24, 1989). How America has run out of time. Time Magazine. pp. 58-67.

Linder, S. (1974). The increasing scarcity of time. In J. Murphy (Ed.), Concepts of Leisure (pp. 48-58). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Sessoms, D. (1984). Leisure services (6th Edition). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Tindell, J. (Fall, 1991). Trends analysis: Where does the time go? California Parks & Recreation Magazine. pp. 15-16.

Soviet City Parks

Daniel L. Dustin, San Diego State University

The scene is reminiscent of the United States in the 1950's when people had more time. It is a brisk April day in Lenin Park in the city of Leningrad in the Soviet Union. Mothers and grandmothers ("babushkas" as they're called in Russian) stroll with baby buggies. Birds sing and children play in sandboxes. Spring is in the air.

I am here to observe the role of parks in the daily life of approximately 180 million Soviet citizens who reside in cities and towns. Most of them live in apartments. Unlike us, they have little space to call their own. Moreover, the vast majority don't own cars. They walk or rely on mass transit. There is a different pace to life here, one that takes some getting used to.

Officially, municipal parks in the Soviet Union are places for "kool'toorny ee otdykhy." (culture and recreation) The title is apropos. Soviet city parks typically are named in honor of literary, political, or military heroes. Part of their use is dedicated to educating people about Soviet history. I say "Soviet" because even though the most important Russian literary figures pre-date the Soviet Union (e.g. Pushkin, Lermontov, Gogol, Tolstoy, Dostoyevsky), attention is focused on people and events since the Bolsheviks took power in the October Revolution of 1917. In Leningrad alone there are over 230 places commemorating Lenin. And throughout the Soviet Union are more than 50,000 other cultural and historic monuments celebrating Soviet accomplishments in the proletariat struggle for nationhood as well as Soviet success in the Great Patriotic War known to us as World War II.

To a Westerner, there is a somber quality to many of these parks. Leningrad's "Piskarevskoye Kladbee'sche," a memorial shrine to 500,000 men, women, and children who perished during the German siege of the city in the Second World War, is a case in point. In visiting it, one cannot help but be moved by the solemn role played by parks in keeping alive the memory of the real costs of war. In the Soviet Union it is as though World War II ended yesterday. Why not let go of it? Why dredge up so many painful memories? Why not move on? Perhaps it is because the Soviets realize that what a country forgets it is inclined to repeat.

But the Soviets will not forget. In Moscow, Kiev, Odessa, Tbilisi, Irkutsk, and other Soviet cities, I watch groups of Young Pioneers, the equivalent of our Girls Scouts and Boy Scouts, pay tribute to their country's heroes. Dressed in white blouses and shirts with red scarfs, and topped off by telltale red caps, these nine to fifteen year-olds are having a history lesson in parks. I also witness brides and grooms toasting their newly formed partnership with champagne and then placing flowers by whatever statue or monument serves as the park's centerpiece. Soviet city parks obviously play an important cultural function. They are places of symbolic significance tying together the past with the present as well as offering a quiet retreat for thoughts of the future.

But Soviet city parks are also designed for recreation. The larger ones like Gorky Park in Moscow are filled with ferris wheels, ice cream stands ("moroshenoe" in Russian), paddleboats, concert pavilions, sidewalk cafes, and tennis courts. Some even contain small zoos. A day spent in any of them is replete with joggers, people reading for pleasure, sweethearts chatting, old-timers recounting war stories, and the ubiquitous mothers and babushkas parading their babies in carriages. The pleasures are simple. They border on the nostalgic, reviving in me long forgotten memories of childhood.

Who looks after these parks? Very little machinery is evident. I do see and talk to many women workers and some men. With hand tools and brooms made of

twigs, they manicure the grounds. It is labor intensive to say the least. On Lenin's birthday (April 22), I am even treated to the sight of scores of Leningraders pitching in to clean up their city. This "soobbotnik" (volunteer day) would be a good idea for us to implement on a grand scale as well.

Besides the manicured parks, I also visit several others that appear to be less well groomed. In Odessa's Shevchenko Park the grass is uncut and there is a general unkempt look. I am reminded of the journalist Hedrick Smith's reaction to a similar scene in *The Russians*: "Here, behind the green fence was a Russian garden, wild and uncombed. I would not have called it a garden at all; it was just a fenced-in chunk of woodland. Shrubs, trees, grasses grew freely in no pattern, shaped by no hand. And then I realized that this was precisely its appeal to the Russian soul. In its rambling, wild, deliciously undisciplined disarray, it provided release from their over-tended, over-crowded, over-supervised lives. Russians need to break the bonds, burst the limits, spiritually take off their shoes and run barefoot..." Russians can do this in their parks.

Unofficially, parks make an even more important contribution to Soviet city life. Families without backyards need space for children to play, for infants to take their first steps, for socialization to occur. Parks serve these purposes too. In viewing the process, Frederic Law Olmsted's rationale for building Central Park in New York City comes to mind. People living in close quarters need breathing room. It's as true behind the Iron Curtain as it is in the shadow of the Statue of Liberty. Perhaps more so.

Many of the larger Soviet cities are also dissected by rivers. These waterways were important trade routes in the past, but today they are more inclined to be recreational corridors. They are fished in, and floated upon. And on their banks, like the bank of the Kura River in the Georgian capitol of Tbilisi where I write these words, it is possible to sit and reflect on the larger flow of life in the U.S.S.R. itself.

One cannot help but make comparisons with the United States when visiting the Soviet Union. The political systems aside, I admit being partial to Soviet cities and their networks of parks, green belts, and waterways. The cities are, with few exceptions, much older than ours. They have a richer history. They were built to be lived in, to be walked in, to be enjoyed as well as to be places for commerce. They were not built for automobiles. Consequently they tend to be of a more human scale. And that is pleasing to the senses when visiting them.

In this regard, I believe Kiev, the "mother" of Russian cities, is one of the most pleasing I have ever set foot in. It is garden-like and integrates human nature with mother nature in a delightful way.

Yes, it's true people are less free in the Soviet Union . It is also true that frequently there are long lines at the stores. The concept of one-stop shopping is alien there. Credit cards are just now being introduced. And there is clearly not the abundance of choices we have in the United States.

So if you're accustomed to comfort and convenience, if you like to think of the customer as king, if you demand speedy service, if you have to be someplace else in a hurry, indeed if your concept of time is decidedly linear, then you will find Soviet cities and the Soviet lifestyle in general highly disagreeable.

On the other hand, if you question once in a while, as I confess I do, what we have really gained in the United States by always pressing for a competitive advantage, by automation, mass production, economies of scale, and a concern for efficiency, and what we may have lost in the process, then a visit to the Soviet Union may be worthwhile. Would I want to trade places? No. But the contrast

is instructive. If you're patient and flexible, if you don't let the lines get you down, if you like to walk as I do, then you may profit from a journey there.

Buy a loaf of black bread at a bakery (just tuck it under your arm as you walk), pick up some smoked fish at the next store, a bottle of Georgian wine at the next, and flowers at the corner stand. Then, on your walk back to the hotel, sit for an hour or so on a park bench and relax. Watch the world go by. Tell your own war stories to the old soldier sitting next to you. Smell the flowers. What are you in a rush for, anyway? Like I said, it takes some getting used to.

Play It Again -- Someone!
They Haven't Got It Straight Yet: What's Recreation?

Maureen Glancy, San Jose University

As one of several hundred faculty like yourselves, I am personally involved in the continuing dialogue about what constitutes a course of study in recreation and leisure studies. In the process of developing as a faculty member, I recall a period of years when I stumbled awkwardly, trying to define recreation and leisure for my students. It seems most of us go through this. In teaching my students, I, too, learned. We truly worked at teaching each other. Somewhat gratifying to me was the knowledge that I was not alone in my inability to profess clearly and succinctly what it was that shaped our field and discipline as well as what distinguished the discipline from other courses of study in human services and athletics, the arts, or small business enterprise for that matter. My students helped me realize that there was little heard within the profession-at-large or by the masses of publics we hoped to serve that had to do with the meaning and significance of leisure and recreation. To those students, it was baffling but also an exciting opportunity to open the closet door on our philosophy and roots of the profession.

With relief, I finally came to rest mentally with my own need to be clear on definitions and meaning about three years ago. For me, research and writing helped isolate and integrate ideas to a large extent, but so did certain colleagues. Among those whose writing and dialogue were helpful, I must acknowledge Howe and Rancourt (1991) whose recent article provides evidence of their work to bring clarity and consistency to definitions. Also stimulating my thinking was scholar Shaw (1986) with her hermeneutical analysis of the use of recreation and leisure in common language. I would add to the foregoing, interaction with colleagues several of whose collected essays appear together: Ellis and Witt (1991), Mannell (1991), and Sylvester (1991). It was Rossman's (1989) ability to link philosophy with programming that truly brought together our espoused theory and our theory-in-practice (Argyris & Schon, 1980), however. I, too, have been working at the idea of "walking our talk" to use popular jargon; I now have more tools with which to think, talk, and teach.

The Problem

Quite unexpectedly, in moving to a new position with different teaching responsibilities, I discovered a whole new vision of our field -- one with which I am disgruntled. It leaves me feeling betrayed, as if my, no, our past efforts are of no importance -- as if we have merely been travelers on a sandy beach, and our meaning is as ephemeral as footprints in the tidal wash. What I am speaking of is how recreation and leisure are viewed within the field of hospitality. The impression given is that recreation is being swept along into the burgeoning professional bag of services offered in the name of hospitality. There appears to be no awareness of the social and psychological significance of leisure or the role of recreation in relation to leisure, health, and well-being. Our field, our history, the profession, our hopes and efforts can only be described as invisible.

Lack of Communication

My assessment is limited, but does reflect the thinking of the authors of the two leading textbooks used to introduce the field of hospitality to college students. What I discovered is that, while many of our departments and colleagues espouse recreation as inclusive of travel, tourism, and commercial recreation, we are, in fact, not perceived that way. Somewhere along the way these last few years, we neglected to communicate to the hospitality arena just what our relationship was to these bridging areas of service. It is as if the two fields operate in entirely different mental worlds, creating conceptual and

practical divergence, overlap and duplication, or incomprehensible disorganisation in our students' minds.

Limited Vision of Reality

Our challenge is not only to espouse the idea that travel and tourism and commercial recreation are opportunities for leisure but also first to demonstrate convincingly this idea by showing how they may be functions of recreation and, second, to figure out how our field relates to a grand scheme of human services that includes hospitality. It is obvious that the two fields are enmeshed in many, if not most, service delivery settings even though this point has not been made before.

Business of Providing Services

In presenting the field of hospitality to the novice, highly touted authors Brymer (1991) and Powers (1988) freely use the phrase leisure time and glibly write of it as if it were an increasing commodity in people's lives. Furthermore, Brymer, defines the hospitality industry as lodging, food service, travel, and recreation businesses, and, Cooper (1991) refers to public parks and clubs as her examples of recreation in the same volume. More to the point, "recreation business" is elaborated by Cooper with a general listing of "municipal parks, recreation agencies, commercial recreation, State and Federal agencies, industrial recreations, Armed Forces, outdoor recreation, colleges and universities, and youth serving agencies" (p. 46). Employment opportunities are amplified in another list, including community center director, playground supervisor, director of sport facilities, wildlife manager, and various other agency managerships, including Red Cross, YMCA, Girl Scout, Boys Club, and senior citizen centers (p.47). What happens? The issue of essential qualities underlying recreation becomes clouded. Ipso facto, recreation becomes hospitality in our students' minds.

Services as Attractions

Powers (1988) uses a different approach. He implicitly incorporates recreation under the rubric of tourism, identifying planned play environments, "man-made" [fabricated] environments, urban entertainment centers, fairs and festivals, and natural environments as attractions for destination-bound travelers (Ch. 10). Of course, all of his examples are not commercial enterprises nor does the profit motive necessarily detract from the potential for recreative experience. My sense is that, relying on dictionary definition and superficial personal assumption, popular authors and industry leaders, Powers and Brymer, can have a powerful effect in redefining our field and our purposes for us.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to examine possible conditions leading up to this revelation of purpose and to propose appropriate action that may be of value to both fields of practice. Brief reference will be made to several sources in order to create a framework for interpreting the effects of history on the present situation. Then, to uncover problematic conditions, I will provide an overview of history as experienced by academic programs in recreation. This will be followed by a similar review to highlight and compare notable features in the competing fields of practice.

Process of Change: Disorganisation and Reorganisation

Reich's Stages of Social Organisation

History may help us understand our profession-wide silence in professing philosophy publicly to the people we serve. We have been through many changes.

Reich (1970), offers the idea that there is a process of organization and change through which all social institutions proceed on the way to becoming mature, well-integrated organizations. The stages experienced are similar, though without conscious effort achieving the last stage is probably not possible. In the process of change, clarity of purpose is diminished.

Initial Stage

For the professional field of recreation and parks, the first stage of organization can be seen as profession-building, roughly taking place during the first sixty years of this century. At the start, there was disagreement among the key organizers. There was a New York faction advocating for a powerful, central decision-making board, and a Boston faction supporting control by representatives from the various frontlines of service (Jones, 1991). The Boston faction prevailed, and the early vision was established as one of independently contributing to public welfare and community development while sharing ideas and information through professional media. Whenever the pressure to survive against new odds increased, history suggests we have been accommodating and changed our orientation. Reich (1970) would suggest it was a useful strategy for trying to reorganize or reorder our values and priorities.

Stop-Gap Changes

Out of fear, as Reich's theory goes, the second-stage reorganization occurs, one in which individuality is limited. In its second stage of development the profession expanded its vision to a include a broader interpretation of the common good, one that incorporated cooperative development of the profession-base, differentiation of private and public delivery sectors, and branching out with novel approaches to leisure provision. We also reorganized missions and developed standards, codes, and quasi-measurable criteria to gain acceptance, that is, professional stature and institutional support. In so doing, we have relinquished the freedom of expression previously characterizing the recreation professional and academic program.

Integration Stage

It is my belief that we are now at the brink of yet another identity crisis, one which suggests the final stage proposed by Reich. It is a stage of growth in which attainment of a well-integrated social institution should be achieved. We can either succeed or fail altogether in this new era of conscious concern and responsible choice. There are no assurances. In his terms, many members of the field may feel betrayal since neither adaptability nor advancement has resulted in achieving the promise of status elevation for the profession. In addition, bending to the treadmill of self-imposed external measures did not improve the identity of the field nor did measuring up provide security to persons employed in our ranks. Instead of integrating, our efforts have served to divide us. Instead of achieving strength through diversity, we have encouraged fragmented and weakly linked relations in the field and between the field and academe. It seems to me that we <u>are</u> in a state of social disintegration. There is a great deal to be accomplished if we are to transform our talents and capabilities to the model institution needed by post-industrial society.

Organizing Around Shared Meanings and Values

McGee (1962) helped me understand how problems develop and why changes occur within groups. It is a case of [creeping] social disorganization. He wrote:

> Social disorganization [. . .] occurs when a significant proportion of meanings and values are no longer sufficiently

internalized to guide the behavior of a significant proportion of the individuals [involved] (pp. 20-21).

Social disorganization characterized the founding moments of the profession and continued, marked by several major reorganization movements. It is present today, reflected by dissolving bonds within the profession: the therapists, the outdoor educators, the resort-retreat-camp-conference specialists, and the religious are some of my colleagues I have observed forming other unions which they assure me will speak better to their unique missions. Furthermore, the practitioner-researcher dialectic is no closer to resolution of its differences now than it was ten years ago. There is also a group of providers whom we never did seem to attract: the for-profit entrepreneurs, various club managers, franchise operators, entertainment promoters, museum and arts programmers, and travel and tour specialists; our values and their priorities were apparently not close enough to suit their needs either.

Change in Academe: The 1930s to the Present

The Early Years on Campus

As I reflected on our professional biography, the thought developed that prior to the 1960s, academic departments and the field of practice were pretty well unified behind the idea that recreation was a function and privilege of citizenship in its broadest sense. Of course, there were only a handful of colleges offering programs in recreation, and they all were lead by persons of vision who glimpsed the real-world purpose for educating leadership for service in the field. Many of the founders of academic departments were also philosophers in their own right. They wrote about recreation as democracy in action and a social good in which members of the community shared. There was a sense of belief, akin to the Classic Greek notion that citizenship, recreation, and the good life were linked. They made response to this unbounded opportunity sound like the creative, committed, entrepreneurial, and daring today's corporate heads attribute to Red Adair. The "Movement," as historians call it, blossomed.

The Sixties -- A Time for Education.

Times changed, however, or so I felt. During the 1960s, as some will remember, the established order was under siege. Young people sought to topple university administrations and get even with big business by beating it at its own game of thievery. To the young, illusions had been shattered by a series of unforgivable crimes, including racism and prejudice, unredeemable war, hero assassination, governmental conspiracy, and monopolistic enterprise. Our institutions had lost touch with reality -- with the people who were to be served. Thus was a ten-year period in our history when citizen-power became a force and human services were scrutinized by the citizens they purported to serve. The motive driving college programs was to respond to the civil rights mandate which effectively meant that we were responsible to provide educational opportunities so citizens could experience self-determination and enjoy a fair chance in the business of everyday life.

Academe bustled with new monies, newly assumed responsibilities to update curricula, and a new source of students, the other sex. Thus, programs in human services bloomed on every campus, recreation notwithstanding. With education the watch-word, recreation followed the trail blazed earlier by organized camping: recreation was educational. Many of the new academic departments adopted the label Recreation Education; others simply incorporated methods of teaching and lesson planning in leadership courses. Even the writings of Dewey, Gulick, and Lee were dusted off and read for the first time in years. Growth was hard to keep up with; I remember our department at Northeastern leaped in enrollments from 25 in year one to 220 four years later, and it did not stop there. During these years, it was not unusual in our department to find seven or eight students majoring in Recreation Education and carrying a major or minor in Education as

well. Nation-wide, the result of campus expansion dramatically increased the numbers of young professionals, the numbers of women especially. These graduates moved into positions in which they could bring education to the community in the form of recreation: in Lighted Schoolhouses, community development programs, social agencies, municipal parks and recreation departments, and outdoor education and conference centers.

The Scientific Era

Whereas the sixties saw campuses virtually doubling physical facilities and student enrollments, the seventies brought to academe a period of unparalleled growth in science and business management. Cost of education, business, medicine, government, and national defense leaped during this period. On campuses, the liberal arts and human services declined in popularity and funding.

Comparable worth was a popular term, and, universally, the accepted model for determining worth was scientific. Thus, another transformation occurred: many recreation departments adopted labels including the terms administration, science, or the more abstract concept of leisure.

Research was the new baby in many departments, and the idea that terminal degree-holders were best qualified to teach in university programs was becoming the norm. Thence it was that management-by-objective and the behavioral objective with its origin in observable measures became mainstays of planning, programming, and treatment in our field. This was the time when municipal departments suffered vast budget cuts, and the forty-or-so-year-old field not only began operating its institutions without fulltime, trained leadership in direct contact with the publics being served but gave over its principal leadership positions to MBAs.

In my estimation, this is where we lost touch with the reality of our purpose and philosophy. Recreation professionals were nothing more than middle management, trying to reform recreation to conform to scientific models for business and economics. I think this is the time when the spirit went out of recreation. With our new business systems orientation, there was no demand for the joy of service and little potential for professional satisfaction through providing opportunities for happiness. We looked to external qualities and simplistic approximations of the human experience and held these puny excuses up to science for evaluation of our comparable worth. It's a wonder we are still here to debate these issues today!

The Era of Accountability

Our identity still has not been resolved. On the outside, the 1980s brought repeat performances of the 1974 economic recession, and institutional flexibility became the watchword for readiness to respond to change. The notion of service could not survive except within the framework of fiscal accountability. Evaluation and research boomed. In every institution new technology was learned, resulting in updated missions, strategic planning, and prediction of trends for opportunistic future control. On campuses, the bottom was dropping out of enrollments, and departments were now A.K.A. (also know as) travel and tourism, commercial recreation, therapeutic recreation, and leisure services delivery systems.

Looking at the past this way suggests that we, too, have not held particularly dearly to a philosophy but have considered the wrapping more important than the gift. In transforming our labels, what message is communicated? Is recreation Democracy in Action? Education? Scientifically Managed Environments? Flexible Response to Environmental Change? Travel? Tourism? Commerce?

The Fields of Practice: Recreation and Hospitality

As I considered the quandary of trying to answer students' questions about the relationship of recreation and hospitality, I realized that our apparent academic transiency may not be the sole explanation for our present state of affairs. There are some interesting comparisons to consider between recreation and hospitality.

In elemental terms, hospitality has probably been part of the human experience as long as play, leisure, and various forms of recreation have been. By definition, hospitality refers to the accommodation of needs for people who are away from home; this includes the shopper, meeting attender, day traveler, or business and pleasure tourist. Parallels can be drawn between hospitality and recreation as fields of practice experiencing a synchronous emergence about a century ago. At that time, recreation and hospitality were very different responses to the various human needs for service in cities. Technical solutions to work in industry were wreaking havoc with long-established norms, behaviors, and lifestyles, both at work, and, at work's end. The two fields drew upon different resources at first. Recreation organized the power, prestige, and social conscience of an affluent public; whereas, hospitality attracted leadership with an entrepreneurial attitude and investment capital. Both fields produced pioneers who exercised efforts to meet needs created by industrial and commercial development.

Citizen Welfare

During the early years, we might say that recreation focused on the needs of the immigrant and emigrant attracted to U.S. cities for employment. These were displaced peoples who were experiencing a different form of frontier life -- one that rendered almost useless former independent living skills such as native language and social norms; orienteering, hunting, and fishing; farming or gardening; weaving, carpentry, and other handcrafts; community involvement; and outdoor and indoor play forms. Commercial recreation was already well established in urban areas and vacation locales, providing services for an upper class with disposable funds. For persons of low social status, commercial interests centered on entertainment of questioned moral repute. No provision had been made, however, for the major population shift of citizens moving from rural to urban environs or for the dramatic surges of foreigners pouring into U.S. cities. New skills, new spaces, and ways to adjust were needed for the urban masses, and these recreations needed to be moral in nature and freely available to all.

Traveler Welfare

A different motive spurred the hotel industry. At the turn of the century, the few existing hoteliers recognized that commerce was expanding its national and international business linkages and transportation was speeding the delivery of people to distant locales with improving flexibility and reliability. So, for the business traveler and the growing numbers of vacation travelers, accommodation of personal maintenance needs could become a source of business itself.

Profession Innovation

Professionalization was not the objective in the early phases of development for the field of recreation or hospitality. However, professionalization is a way of explaining the changes, development, and improvement of services to people in the unhealthy, unfamiliar, and/or limited environments that industrialized cities represented.

Probably recreation practitioners were the first to become self-conscious about the need to professionalize in order to assure service and quality life

opportunity to its publics, that notion growing out of the Boston arm of the developing organization (Jones, 1991). We are aware of the professional associations for play and recreation, the national training school, and early periodicals devoted to informing the mainly lay, volunteer, and community-minded corps of leaders. Our early organizational roots were hosted by social and health organizations, religious institutions, and governmental bureaus and operations. By the end of the depression years, service included organized community and city recreation, national and state parks, commercial entertainments and amusements, and a budding national highway system and hostelries that Henry Ford and others were ready to field with automobiles.

During the same period, the competition model familiar in commerce helps explain the lack of orchestrated development in hotels and food-service. Forming professional associations and working toward common goals was not possible among people who viewed each other as opponents in a battle. However, the gains in vision and provision of services were vast as well as profitable to adventurers in hospitality services during the first half-century. By the end of the fifties, every model for hotel and food service provision common today had been invented.

Since World War II, both recreation and hospitality have recognized the unlimited potential for service and the equally limitless extent to which those needs can be seen as demand for service and converted to a willingness to pay. Recent history supports this idea.

Fiscal Innovation

For those of us in the field of recreation, the limits on social agency spending were met in 1974 with the first oil cartel-contrived recession. The limits on government spending and social agency funding began shortly afterward in 1978, and these limits have imposed additional constraints annually since then. Religious institutions were in membership and financial decline so recreation under those auspices also waned. We can see, now, that our pipelines for service to the masses had literally been cut off. Even so, need continued to exist, so professionals and others began to adapt service-provision to create fiscally accountable delivery systems in order to appeal to persons in positions of power and with resources to control.

We are all well aware of the novelty spawned in the eighties. We saw a shift in interest to commercial forms of service provision as well as non-profit programs integrated with the for-profit sector for service delivery. Private sources such as religious and member-only organizations expanded recreation services tailored to their members' common interests.

The concept of an integrated model evolved so service-provision could be maintained through governmental, educational, and health channels, but now outside monies or businesses became major players, sometimes taking on the powerful role of coach or agent. The Hershey Track and Field Program is a typical example familiar nationally, as is the Pepsi Challenge for community beautification. Increasingly, the lines between recreation and hospitality business were blurred: by commercial enterprise within the public sector and social agency operations; by partnerships between non-profits and private benefactors; and with pay-as-you-go admission or member fee policies. Now it is commonplace for a local corporation to fund a latchkey program; for caterers to run our refreshment stands; for ice cream peddlers to pay a licensing fee; for souvenir and equipment shops to exist as independent centers of profit; and for youth and adult sport teams to play under corporate sponsorship. Even the growth in foundation-type support of public and non-profit services has encouraged change; use of stand-alone, non-profit corporations within tax-exempt organizations is common.

Common Settings, Different Purposes

Looking back over the past hundred or so years offers a perspective that hospitality and recreation do occupy some of the same territory. So much of what distinguished these two fields historically was philosophical, but, in the face of economic survival, philosophy may be costly, inefficient, or both. Campgrounds, organized camps, hostelries, retreat centers, resorts, and conference operations have long been common to the purpose of recreation and our way of serving in the non-profit and for-profit sectors. These services facilitate the bringing together of people in a special or planned environment in which interaction is possible and personal growth and maintenance needs are not mutually exclusive but are holistically considered. Not to be overlooked, the amusement park historically was set in an attractive location: the seashore, a mountainside park, or a lakefront and forest. Originally, these attractions were run by local government if they were on public land. If not, they were entirely private and commercial in intent. Currently, I doubt if many public entities can afford the liability cost or the public discontent engendered by the admission charges necessary in today's business environment. So, I suspect many facilities are no longer a feature of public service as we know it, but are strictly operated for commercial purposes.

The amusement of people has also taken on a more differentiated mask for the public, witness the theme park innovations; the growth of local tourism by creating attractions out of local features and history; and the development and operation of trips and tours -- for self-development, cultural enrichment, historical reverie, sight-seeing, and now ecological education and archeological exploration. Yet, even as we claim this sector of recreation, hospitality lays claim likewise. Are there lines of integrity within discipline, practice, and enabling and directing our purpose? When WE think of recreation, don't we believe there is a special lift or spirit or lightness of heart as a result of our individual experiences -- some raison d'etre -- not just a category of activity or time hospitably served up or filled in?

Reductionism and Loss of Meaning

Today, many young people are being introduced to the concept of recreation provision as hospitality because travel for pleasure, provision of tourist experiences, and recreation in local public and private facilities and programs are seen simplistically as management operations. Recreation experiences are reduced to trend predictions and information components available for use by hotel concierges, outbound travel agents, receptive travel agents, restaurant servers, gas station attendants, former travelers, and anyone else the out-of-towner may contact with questions about "what can I do?". Recreation is also seen as components with specialized demand, or market niches, to be developed for investment purposes and linked with other commodities in the hospitality industry. Rather than create a systematically fragmented conceptual structure for itself, hospitality is forming into a magnet concept, a paradigm in the making.

Let me be clear about one thing: I do not stand on one side or the other. What I do believe, however, is that what recreation means and what it serves has not reached its limits; it has simply not reached its publics -- including both the educated, practicing professionals and the society of peoples we seek to serve. In classes, professional meetings, and in print, we still claim to stand for "service of need." I'm not sure many of us are ready to adopt hospitality's "service for a price" slogan. We may be charging prices, but I still think we are a distinct field of expertise not a turnkey operation ready for management by a general manager.

Source of Meaning: Symbolic/Social Interaction

Our expertise lies in providing facilities and/or programs that are carefully planned to enhance individuals' needs to interact -- with their own minds, with a novel environment, with recreation objects that provide an arousing array of possibilities, and with other people -- family, friends, and developing acquaintances. Furthermore, we are specially gifted with a philosophy, history, and scholarly study and dialogue that teaches us about the values of relationship, personal investment, enriching involvement, and resolution of problems and personal turmoil through the fantastic experience of accomplishing personally selected challenges. We also know how to deliver!

Transforming the Problem: Approaching Solution

What is needed now is a conceptual model for services related to personal well-being. Godbey (1991) professes the need for a broader and better integrated vision of recreation with well-being at its core. Hospitality already identifies with a concern for people's well-being when away from home. Taking steps to consciously create an integrated model corresponds to Peck's (1987) call to create associations to bring together various elements sharing certain things in common with the ideal of honoring differences rather than ameliorating or ignoring them (p. 171). In McGee's (1962) terms, we need to recognize, accept, and organize our mutual potentials to serve according to fundamental meanings and values. In other words, we need to get on with new paradigm science, education, business, and ethics advocated by the likes of Chenery, Dustin, Godbey, Gray, Howe, McDonald, Murphy, and others.

Problematic Systems

Communicating THE Message Publicly

Thus, what underlies the problem of distinguishing recreation from hospitality? First, students, at the very least, are unable to separate recreation from hospitality when they begin their courses of study. On our part, we have not given them, or members of the general public, adequate public discourse from which to learn about the nature, essence, and value of recreation and leisure. Our dialogue is contained within our classrooms and mainly academic literature and meetings such as this.

Getting THE Message in Apprenticeship

A second point is that, for a number of years now, we have been developing specialized curricula in tourism, fitness club operation, and private-commercial recreation -- taught mostly by new-comers to the discipline who have considerable education and research experience but notably little grounding in the field of recreation practice -- the purpose for which we educate. (I underline the fact that this is not their fault; they are responding to a demand WE have created in our own departments and universities.) Along with this, we have been placing students in a wide variety of business operations, businesses, however, that do not necessarily succeed in providing the re-creative experience of facilitating personal development through fitness; travel; or commercial courses, events, or entertainments.

I am personally aware of students functioning in field work positions such as front desk clerks in hotels, banquet planners, parking lot attendants, customer-relations trainees, travel agents, youth supervisors on cruise ships, and as meeting planners using a formula of stock items to complete sales. They learn nothing about facilitating people to construct their own mentally liberating fun in deeply involving experience that IS the re-creative means and the leisure opportunity. Rather, students become proficient in a host of ways to control employees, customers, and conditions, and they learn how to put into practice

concepts like criticals, satisfiers, image-management, quality, and selling the product.

Perhaps loss of the value of the interactive experience is not limited to the specific practica I just related . . . perhaps many more students are failing to get the message about who we/they are and why we are. As an aside, I would observe that in the public and non-profit sector, recreation professionals no longer enter and work in the field at the direct-service level; whereas, in the private sector, only direct service leads to moving up the corporate ladder. We are disconnected in many ways. Learning what recreation is about, though, has to do with what we call the qualities of recreation. McLuhan's (1964) commentary on the segmentation and analysis of culture reminds us that for recreation and leisure, "in operational and practical fact, the medium is the message (p.7)." Yes, we can be business-like and be highly profitable centers of commerce. And, NO, efficiency, standardization, assessed behavioral manifestation, demand, and expenditure levels are not the kinds of things that explain recreation: its choice, its benefits, or the serendipity of gratifying personal reward.

Missing THE Message with Assessment

This last part is by way of introducing my final point. We fail to give credence to, and teach understanding of, what recreation is and leisure means. We fail because we continue to employ measures of accountability that reflect a basic interest in product uniformity based on external indicators and controlled work environments to assure production standards as if we could manufacture the re-creative experience.

The important question is whether this is really the outcome we want. I doubt it if our intent is to provide a means for self-defined, self-chosen, meaningful personal development with outcomes that contribute to a sense of well-being. How can we facilitate the person-as-actor if control is our major issue? Even the manufacturing industry has progressed to implementing practices of quality circles and cooperative work strategies as management philosophy in practice. Initiative, integrity, creativity, supportiveness, longevity, developed co-worker and customer relations, and giving the customer a better product-use environment are the kinds of attributes and accomplishments major industry focuses on now. Personally, I am overwhelmed by our reluctance to learn and to lead and accept change while so many of us claim to realise that change is characteristic to life!

Steps Toward Solution

Profess the Meaning or Re-Creative Experience

So, what do I ask? Basically, it has to do with taking responsibility for getting and giving THE message. I call upon us all to: 1) profess the fundamental truth of recreation: it is freedom and satisfaction in the interactive experience that is re-creational. Thus, recreation depends on a special expertise developed out of philosophy, practice in facilitation, and continuing scholarly attitudes among its practicing professionals in academe and in the field. 2) Provide students with insights and field experiences where the interactive experience is the focus and facilitates individual involvement in creating it anew. For those who would ask for clarification, I would recommend Rossman's programming text. 3) Invent and provide grounds for popular acceptance of affective and spiritual objectives as outcomes for assessment and interpretation of the quality of recreation. McDonald's (1987) paper on the spiritual experience in recreation is an exemplar for this idea. And, last, 4) enter consciously into discourse with the general public and our boundary partners like hospitality and small business enterprise so we may work together to imagine how serving the goal of well-being can integrate recreation and hospitality functions without sacrifice of leisure -- the universal, true, and divine experience (Pieper, 1952) found through recreation.

References Cited

Brymer, R. A. (1991). Overview of the hospitality industry. In R.A. Brymer (Ed.), Hospitality Management: An Introduction to the Industry (sixth ed.) (pp. 1-13). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Pub.

Cooper, C.A. (1991). Careers in the hospitality industry. In R.A. Brymer (Ed.), Hospitality Management: An Introduction to the Industry (sixth ed.) (pp. 38-48). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt Pub.

Ellis, G.D. & Witt, P.A. (1991). Conceptualization and measurement of leisure: Making the abstract concrete. In T.L. Goodale and P.A. Witt (Eds.), Recreation and Leisure: Issues in and Era of Change, (third ed.) (pp. 377-395). State College, PA: Venture Pub.

Godbey, G. (1991). Redefining public parks and recreation. Parks and Recreation, 26(10), 56-69+.

Goodale, T.D. & Witt, P.A., Eds. (1991). Recreation and Leisure: Issues in and Era of Change, (third ed.). State College, PA:Venture Pub.

Howe, C.Z. & Rancourt, A.M. (1990). The importance of definitions of selected concepts for leisure inquiry. Leisure Sciences, 12(4), 395-406.

Jones, D.B. (1991). The playground of America: A thwarted attempt at the professionalization of play leaders. Paper presented at the NRPA-SPRE Leisure Research Symposium, Baltimore, MD, October 17-21, 1991.

Mannell, R.C. (1991). The "psychologization" of leisure services. In T.L. Goodale and P.A. Witt (Eds.), Recreation and Leisure: Issues in and Era of Change, (third ed.) (pp. 429-439). State College, PA: Venture Pub.

McDonald, B. (1987). Recreation as a spiritual experience: Awareness, community, and meditative aspects. Paper presented at the NRPA Congress, New Orleans, LA, September 17-21, 1987.

McGee, R. (1962). Social Disorganization in America. San Francisco, CA: Chandler Pub.

McLuhan, M. (1964). Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Co.

Peck, M.S. (1987). The Different Drum: Community Making and Peace. NY, NY: Simon and Schuster.

Pieper, J. (1952). Leisure, The Basis of Culture. New York, NY: Pantheon.

Powers, T. (1988). Introduction to Management in the Hospitality Industry (third ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Rossman, J.R. (1989). Recreation Programming: Designing Leisure Experiences. Champaign, IL: Sagamore Pub.

Reich, C.A. (1970). The Greening of America. NY, NY: Random House.

Shaw, S.M. (1986). Leisure, recreation or free time: Measuring time usage. Journal of Leisure Research, 18(3), 177-189.

Sylvester, C. (1991). Recovering a good idea for the sake of goodness: An interpretive critique of subjective leisure. In T.L. Goodale and P.A. Witt (Eds.), Recreation and Leisure: Issues in and Era of Change, (third ed.) (pp. 441-454). State College, PA: Venture Pub.

Dynamic Assessment
An Activity-Based Research Model for Peak Experience Research

Sharon R. Gray and Howard R. Gray, Brigham Young University

The Recreation Experience

The recreation experience is a source of self discovery. It is remarkable that recreation (a multi-billion dollar enterprise) can so significantly influence a child's development and so prominently effect the life of an adult. Documenting this phenomenon has received little research attention. It is even more remarkable that researchers have devoted so little effort to the systematic collection and analysis of direct testimony from leisure activity participants. The recreation experience is more than a casual, inconsequential time filler. Participants report personal meaning of these experiences in terms of their personal identity and memories that last a lifetime. Self discovery is one of the most intimate, most difficult and most significant kinds of learning (Gray and Ibrahim, 1985). Measuring the recreation experience as a source of self discovery is the goal of this paper.

Recreation experiences are described by participants in terms of anticipation, participation, and reflection (the three principle components of the recreation experience). First there is your dream--anticipation of the recreation experience. Second, you act out your dream--participation phase where your dream becomes reality. Finally, you create a durable memory of your dream--reflection phase becomes the memory that is treasured and enhanced with time. Memory focused on how you can face your fears while extending personal limits is at the heart of the remembered activity (Gray and Ibrahim, 1985).

The major reason for considering an assessment model is based upon the need to measure a great diversity of abilities and skill performance criteria among recreation participants of similar age or social level (Kirk and Gallagher, 1983). The problem focuses on the inability of the recreation research paradigm to document the leisure skill development of various participant groups or to respond fully to the special needs of every participant. The basic premise is that the individual differences of diverse participant groups are too great for the recreational researcher to deal without an appropriate assessment model.

Dynamic Assessment

In dynamic assessment, the researcher: (a) presents a novel problem; (b) explains the rules, principles, and strategies needed to solve that problem; then (c) evaluates the examinees' ability to learn from those explanations. The key assessment questions are: "What does this individual need in order to learn? or "How does he or she respond to various aspects of training or practice?" In answering these assessment questions, the researcher conducting a dynamic assessment seeks to provide a diagnostic profile of the examinees' strengths and weaknesses in a learning situation (Tzuriel and Klein, 1985).

Assessment Problems

The need to produce more adequate ways to assess individuals of different ages, from various cultures, on different levels of functioning, or of different biopsychological conditions has given rise to a very large and diverse number of techniques usually referred to as culture-free, culture-fair or developmental tests. The quest for new approaches to create assessment tools for emerging populations has lead to a consensus among behavioral scientists that conventional psychometric tests, their modes of presentation and resulting interpretations are inadequate. This professional consensus has stimulated the advancement of psychometric practice in the last 50 years. The primary reason for this is the democratization of mainstreaming of new population groups into society.

Mainstreaming has stimulated the development of assessment techniques for those populations for which test instruments have never had to be developed, norms established or techniques applied.

Dynamic assessment involves the evaluation of learning potential (Feurestein, 1980; Lids, 1987). This approach to assessment is based on how an individual functions in a learning situation rather than from a test of what has been learned in the past.

Target Population

Dynamic assessment emphasizes an instructional approach that might be especially effective with the specific target population. In a dynamic assessment model, some type of leisure education will be assessed during each session. A baseline is established for each participant. Each learning session is organized into a test-teach-test format. The baseline, pre-assessment, instructional teaching, and post-assessment procedures constitute the dynamic assessment process. This four phased evaluation technique is used to measure the amount of change that can be produced by guided teaching and learning situations for a specific target population.

Intervention Goal

What is the nature of the desired intervention. Is it to describe a peak experience in terms of predetermined criterion for success? The interests of comparability and reliability are important when static assessment is being considered. Dynamic assessment models have three important characteristics (Lids, 1987).

The first characteristic of structural change is focused upon the relationship between parts and the whole. Any change imposed on a part will necessarily affect the whole, and in this way lend a quality of generalizability and permanence to the peak experience. Intervention aims to create a peak experience. It will modify a part to effect the whole as with the remedially oriented instrumental enrichment program defined by Feuerstein (1980).

The second characteristic deals with the change or transformations that affect the rhythm, amplitude and meaning of the peak experience. A process of change may begin with a low pace (rhythm) and low amplitude and increase until it significantly modifies the meaning of the peak experience. Interventions elicit changes within individuals. If properly measured, dynamic assessment can indicate the modifiability of an individual during a peak experience.

The third characteristic deals with the self-perpetuating and self-regulating nature of the intervention. External changes can perpetuate themselves internally and autonomously. Does the induced peak experience have a lasting impact on the individual?

Interpreting Peak Experiences

Interpretation focuses on the peaks in the functioning of the individual. This may appear in an unpredicated way during the course of the assessment. Results may stand out in a kind of splendid isolation from a pattern of otherwise low functioning. Rather than discarding these incidents as random or chance, or overlearned behavior and therefor irrelevant to the assessment, peaks in performance are to be considered as indications of the capacity of the individual. The responsibility for explaining their appearance (or lack) falls upon the researcher. Thus, the researcher must generate hypotheses concerning the source of these peaks and reasons for their inconsistency and discontinuity. Is the observed peak behavior the product of intervention? Are there changes observed following the appearance of a peak? Thus, the peak performance can become the subject of study and lend itself to analysis. Research can capitalise

on it by inducing its reoccurrence and by producing insight into the conditions of its appearance.

A profile can be created to interpret the results of peak experience research. The profile makes it possible to consider how the individual peak experience can be modified within specific limits. It can determine the amount of initial intervention necessary to produce changes in the peak experience. The changes can be conceptualized in four distinct part: (1) deficient functioning which required correction in order to create the peak experience, (2) the acquisitions made by the participant in specific content areas or operations, (3) the changes in the affective component (amount or nature of motivation and shifts from extrinsic to intrinsic sources and feelings of competency), and finally, (4) changes in the degree or skill efficiency during the peak experience. It is noted that the motivation and feelings of competency are particularly important targets for change since they represent the energetic sources to help the individual adapt to a new situation. General learning and transfer can be enhanced or obstructed by the energetic investment of the individual.

Summary

Dynamic Assessment helps researchers understand peak experiences and peak performances. Peaks in performance are considered as indicators of the capacity of the individual. The researcher can adapt this useful paradigm in generating hypotheses concerning the sources of these peaks during a recreation experience. The researcher can also postulate possible reasons for their inconsistency or discontinuity. This research model or process assists the researcher in framing researching questions: Has this peak experience appeared because of variations in the modality of input or output? Is it accounted for by variations in the level of complexity? Is the observed behavior a product of intervention? Are there changes observed following the appearance of a peak experience. Can the peak experience become a subject of study and analysis within the dynamic assessment model. What are the conditions that affect its appearance? Is it possible to frame these heuristic questions about peak experiences when utilizing the dynamic assessment model (Lidz, 1987).

This paper focused on the limits of traditional recreation research paradigms. Researchers can adapt the dynamic assessment paradigm to document the leisure skill development of various participant groups or to respond fully to the special needs of every participant.

References

Cornbach, L.J. and Furby, L. (1970). How we should measure "change"-Or should we? Psychological Bulletin, 74, 68-80.

Feurestein, R. (1980). Instrumental Enrichment. Baltimore, Md.: University Park Press.

Gardner, H. (1983) Frames of Mind, New York, NY: Basic Books, Inc.

Gray, D. and H. Ibrahim (1985) Recreation Experience: The Human Dimension, Leisure Today, Guest Editors, Reston, BA: The American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance.

Lidz, C.S. (1987) Dynamic Assessment: An Interactional Approach to Evaluating Learning Potential, New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

McCraken, G. (1988) The Long Interview. Newbury Park, London: Sage Publications.

Samuel, A. Kirk, S.S. and J.J. Gallagher, (1983) Educating Exceptional Children. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Tzuriel, D. and P.S. Klein, (1985) "The assessment of analogical thinking modifiability among regular, special education, disadvantaged and mentally retarded children." Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 13(4), 539-553.

Tzuriel, D. and P.S. Klein (1987) "Assessing the young child: Children's analogical thinking modifiability." In C.S. Lidz (ED.), Dynamic Assessment. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Wang, M.C. and M.J. Zollers (1990) "Adaptive Instruction: An Alternative Service Delivery Approach." Journal of Remedial and Special Education, 11(1), 7-9.

Art for the Elderly:
What art programs are Possible?

Sharon R. Gray
Brigham Young University

Completed longitudinal studies and improved research methods have created new perspectives regarding older adults. Research by Heta Kauppinen of the University of Georgia is helpful in answering questions such as: Who are the Older Adults? What abilities do they have? What are their educational needs? How can art be helpful in the search for meaningful life experiences? What art programs are possible?

Who are Older Adults?

Demographic Studies use the ages of 65 and older and sometimes 55 and older to identify older adults. The older population has experienced sustained growth during this century. In 1900, it included about 3.1 million people or four (4) percent of the total population. There is a popular tendency to refer to the group people who are between 55 and 75 years of age as the young-old and those who are older than 75 as the old-old. The life expectancy of men is less than that of women so the potential clientele will be comprised of a high percentage of women. The demographic projections anticipate that older adults will comprise more than 40% in the general population by the year 2000, and will continue to increase until the year 2011 when the postwar babies become postwar older adults. It is logical to anticipate an increasing need to create quality art programs for these life-long learners (Kauppinen, 1990).

What are their Abilities?

Recent empirical data suggests that there can be continuing cognitive growth in normal older adults and that they can develop special mental abilities (Kauppinen, 1990). The developmental progression of Piaget must be expanded to include older adults. The stage of post-formal operations is believed to involve overall qualities in older adults' mental abilities. A lifetime of personal experience is their foremost asset and it distinguishes them from other age groups. Wisdom gained from life experience includes unique strengths which cannot be attained in any other way. Two of these are: (1) insight afforded by life review and (2) achievement of integrative understanding. A successful life review is one that results in integration, serenity and wisdom. Integrative understanding allows the older adult to recognize and accept the contribution of polar opposites to an interesting and fulfilled life. (Kauppinen, 1990).

What are their educational Needs?

Studies group the educational needs of older adults into three categories: expressive needs, contributory needs, and transcendental needs. Contributory needs call for education to encourage and equip older adults for participating in community projects and activities. Influence needs involve learning to work in association and organizations. Expressive needs involve engaging in learning activities that are enjoyable and meaningful. Transcendence needs involve overcoming previous roles and definitions of self to accept the past as something that had to be with no substitutes.

How Can Art be Helpful?

Piaget's post-formal operations stage has many mental qualities that are helpful in art. Understanding the relativistic, nonabsolute nature of reality may help older adults comprehend various representations of a theme in art. The acceptance of contradiction as part of reality may help them find and agree on varying interpretations of an art work. Older adults' integrative understanding may assist them in translating conflicting meanings in an art work into a unified

theme. The insight of life review helps the older adult discover significant themes in art work.

Art is helpful with expressive needs of the older adults who pursue art appreciation and studio work for self enrichment and the joy of learning. Involvement in aesthetics, art history, and art criticism can be equally as rewarding.

Art is helpful with contributory needs of older adults who acquire skills for working in various art-related community projects and activities. They can exhibit their own art works through involvement with various art clubs and guilds.

Art is helpful with transcendence needs for older adults who search for the meaning in their lives. The quest is not to acquire more knowledge and performance skills, but to become wiser. Wisdom can be achieved as the artist finds meaning in the past. The past can be recreated and reviewed through making and discussing art images. Older adults can elicit what was significant and universal in their life and express these themes in their art (Kauppinen, 1990).

What Art Programs are Possible?

There are many qualitatively different types of art programs for the aging artist to select. Elderly adults who are aware of their options are likely to choose and continue participating in programs that they feel best suit their particular needs. Although art programs differ qualitatively, they may be identified in terms their context: professional context, avocational arts context, recreational arts context and production line context (Bloom, 1980). These represent general types of art contexts which develop progressively from low levels to high levels of student involvement and risk in producing a "successful" art work.

Professional- Professional art courses are geared for students who wish to become professional artists or for those with a serious lifetime commitment to art. The fast pace, low explicit structure and high risk traditionally associated with university courses or museum work makes this context less attractive to older adults. Older adults are already uncertain of their ability to compete with classmates that are many years their junior. Aging artists with very high levels of confidence or those who choose to ignore the highly competitive aspects of professional art courses are very likely to participate.

Avocational and Recreational- In contrast to the professional context the informal context of avocational and recreational requires low levels of student involvement, risk, and skill level. The fact that it does not follow the traditional school model heightens its appeal for the elderly (Elderhostel). A breadth approach with this context provides for a variety of media and art process experiences. It typically offers participants an orientation to the options available to them. Recreation objectives of localising augment the enjoyment of creating art works. These programs are generally part of the diversified activity menu provided by senior centers and golden age clubs. Recreational program objectives are potential in a wide variety of settings. Programs fulfill the needs of aging artists who know little about art. Most participants would be unwilling to risk signing up for a more specific course in a formal art instructional setting.

Production Line- Production-line programs represent the highest levels of structure and the lowest levels of content ambiguity or student risk of failure. The crafts-kit course is an excellent illustration of this program type. Procedures and materials are specified by the teacher and/or some third-party authority. Thus, the student risk of failure is virtually eliminated when the instruction are followed. Production-line courses in art are advertised in terms of the product that is to be made rather than the art process or media to be

utilized. The objectives of artistic growth, which are often significant parts of other program types, may be entirely ignored here. Over-dependence on tightly structured art projects or kits can minimize the artistic growth of the participant.

Developing Confidence with Art?

Bloom (1982) indicates that artistic confidence is a strong factor in the potential student's decision to participate in one of the three program categories. Jones (1980) noted that the average education level of the elderly was higher for those enrolled in informal art program participants than it was for those enrolled in informal programs. Bloom (1982) cites a positive art background as a reason that the elderly study art for its own sake. They simply want to experience the joy of making something. Eisner (1976) studied the artists' need to produce a "successful" art work. Students are feel inhibited about enrolling in an art program when there is too great a gap between their artistic skills and the "standards of judgement" required by a specific program. The dissonance between student skills and acceptable program standards can be a major barrier to elderly artists' participation. Chapman (1978) estimates that 85% of the nation's school aged students discontinue art in early adolescence. This is about the time of their "crises of critical awareness." Similar to Chapman's youthful cohort, the elderly are likely to experience some degree of inhibition or lack of confidence when enrolling in an art program.

Summary

The demographic projections anticipate that older adults will comprise more than 40% of the general population by the year 2000. Older adults will continue to increase in numbers until the year 2011. The expressive, contributory and transcendence needs of the elderly provide important guides in developing future art programs. The programmatic options for the elderly artist needs to represent a production line experiences (Bloom, 1980). Aesthetic, art history, and art criticism experiences offer promise for the aging artists.

References

Bodkin, J., Leibswitz, H. and Weiner, D. (1976). Crafts For Your Leisure Years. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Bloom, L.P.R. (1982). Toward an Understanding of Adult Art Education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation; The Pennsylvania State University.

Chapman, L. (1978). Approaches to Art in Education. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, etc.

Davisson, S., Ruchs, J. and Fitzner, D. (1982). Older Adult Art Students: Descriptive Data for Community Program Planning. Educational Gerontology, 8, 129-141.

Eisner, E. (1976). The Arts, Human Development and Education. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing.

Greenberg, P. (1987). Visual arts and older people: Developing Quality Programs. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Hoffman, D.H., Greenberg, P. and D.H. Fitzner (1980). Lifelong learning and the Visual Arts. Roston, VA: National Art Education Association.

Jones, J.E. (1980). "Older Adults and Art: Research Needs" Lifelong Learning and the Visual Arts. Reston, VA: National Art Education Association.

Kauppinen, H (1990). Changing Perspectives on Older Adults' mental Abilities and Educational Needs: Implications for Art education, Studies in Art Education: A Journal of Issues and Research, 31(2), 99-105.

Lowenfeld, V. (1964). Creative and Mental Growth (4th Ed). New York, NY: MacMillan Press.

Project Playpark: Cooperative Playground Construction

Steve Gray, Cal State University Sacramento

During the past 20 years, Project Playpark, a division of Robert Leathers and Associates, has constructed more than 500 playgrounds in over 25 states, located mainly in the eastern half of the United States (Leathers and Associates 1990, p.2). This Ithaca, New York architectural firm designs each playpark to incorporate ideas contributed by the children who will use it. Generally, funding is generated by donations of money and materials from local citizens and businesses. Additionally, the playgrounds are constructed by community volunteers, including children, parents, teachers and neighbors. The cooperative nature of these ventures, combined with the uniqueness of the playground design, are features of Project Playpark that may prove beneficial to park and recreation professionals in the western United States.

Despite the fact that each of the playgrounds is based on ideas generated by the children of each community, the playparks all have a common "look" to them (Wolkomir 1989, p.108). Leathers' playgrounds feature multi-level wooden structures, with mazes and turrets, interconnecting tunnels, ramps, bridges, ladders, overhead rings, sliding poles, slides, tire swings, and balance beams, which give the play area the look of a medieval fortress (Heinrich 1990, p.31). Leathers notes that the structures are designed "to help children develop their upper-body strength, coordination, and sense of balance...while at the same time leaving quiet corners where they can just sit and drink, dream, or read" (Banks 1989, p.96). Additionally, the play areas are designed to be accessible to the handicapped. Typically, much of the play area is ramped and includes many features at wheelchair height. Leathers designs climbing bars and rings so that the disabled have eye contact with children in other areas. Equipment is also designed for a range of abilities so that handicapped areas aren't segregated (Heinrich 1990, p.31).

There are several phases involved in the construction of a Leathers' playground. Design Day is the official kick off of the community effort in which the layout and detail of the playground begin to take shape as a result of the collaboration between the Leathers' representative and the community. Throughout the day, the architect meets with the children, parents, and school or community official to gather input for the design of the new play area. A schematic design is completed, and the day's efforts end with the presentation of the design at an evening community meeting (Leathers and Associates 1987, p.1).

The actual process usually begins several months earlier. The first step in preparing for Design Day involves the formation of a steering committee of 12 to 25 adults. Generally, one person on this committee will serve as the General Coordinator. The other committee members will act as coordinators for the following areas: donated materials, purchased material, tools, fund-raising, public relations, volunteers, food, childcare, and children's committee. All individual coordinators are assigned before Design Day and begin working as soon as possible. They are guided by a 100-page manual that outlines each step of the process. In addition to detailed specifications for donated material, and guidelines for fund-raising, childcare, and public relations, the manual has advice about such things as how to keep people interested, and food preparation during construction. The manual's technical sections that cover the proper care and maintenance of equipment, essential for the safe and timely completion of the playground, are also very detailed (Leathers and Associates 1987, p.1).

Construction Weekend is the four to five day work effort which culminates the entire process. Children, parents, neighbors, and friends all arrive on site to assist in the various tasks needed to complete the playpark. Usually, the project is finished Sunday afternoon, at which time the playground is officially opened for play (Leathers and Associates 1987, p.1).

Leathers' system has been refined over the past twenty years and appears to be efficient and professional. Some park and recreation professionals have raised doubts about the safety of volunteer-built playgrounds. But Leathers and his associates indicate they meet the NRPA safety specification requirements for playgrounds (Banks 1989, p.96). They supervise and inspect all work done by the volunteers, requiring all work that is not up to standard be redone. Additionally, a section in his manual spells out detailed maintenance requirements for the playpark to ensure continued safe use of the various elements. Like a growing number of city playground designers, he doesn't permit seesaws or merry-go-grounds on his playground, because of their inherent safety problems. He also avoids undue heights and insists on safe ground cover to protect children when they do fall (Banks 1989, p.96). Further, because Leathers is an architect, he must be registered in each state in which he works and would, therefore, be legally liable in the event of lawsuit. Leathers claims the playparks have an outstanding safety record but no systematic research is available to back up these claims.

Making use of donated materials and free labor, Leathers' playgrounds cost anywhere from $10,000 to $60,000, about one-third the price of a comparable commercially built playground (Banks 1989 p.93). Fund-raising is obviously a key issue and Leathers suggests conducting as many small fund-raisers as possible to generate greater community involvement. Over the years, Leathers' playgrounds have grown more sophisticated and, therefore, more expensive. Leathers notes: "The first ones were designed to be a good play experience. They were very inexpensive, so if they lasted five years, that was great. But I found that with only a little more energy devoted to the fund-raising, you can get materials that will last for 25 years" (Banks 1989, p.96). The playgrounds have also become much more elaborate. According to Leathers: "What makes the playgrounds a successful experience for the whole community is all the extra stuff: The picnic tables, the shade trees, the handicapped access, the amphitheaters where the little puppet shows can go on and where parents can sit and watch" (Banks 1989, p.96).

The playparks created by Leathers and Associates have seemingly proved successful in many communities. They appear to be a relatively low cost method of constructing innovative playgrounds that are very appealing to players off all ages. Additionally, the process of organizing and working with communities that Leathers and Associates has developed can be used as a model to accomplish a variety of volunteer-built projects, such as parks, museums, science centers, theaters, etc. Getting community members working and ultimately recreating together may be the most significant benefit to be derived from this process.

References

Banks, A. (1989). "Make Me A Playground." Parenting. September, pp. 92-96.

Heinrich,G (1990). "Designs in Good Citizenship." Architecture Minnesota. September, pp. 30-31.

Leather, R. and Associates, (1990) Creative Playgrounds: We Built IT Together. Unpublished manuscript, Ithaca, New York.

Wolkomir, R. (1989). "A Playful Designer Who Believes That The Kids Know Best." Smithsonian. Vol. 16, No. 5, pp. 108-114.

Extension of the Direct/Indirect Management Approach to Outdoor Recreation Management

Bill Hendricks, University of Utah

Introduction

As visitation to parks, open space and wilderness areas increases annually, land managers and researchers have developed management plans and practices to control recreation behavior. Management approaches have often evolved in response to behavior by individuals which may be detrimental to natural resources or the recreational experiences of others (Peterson & Lime, 1979). More than two decades ago, researchers were reporting an overwhelming abundance of crime and vandalism in parks which stimulated the study of human behavior in public recreation areas (e.g. Campbell, Hendee & Clark, 1968). The continuing problems and impacts caused by human behavior in natural resources and park areas have required land managers to become more involved in visitor services and management in efforts to control overuse, depreciative behavior and recreation conflict (McAvoy & Dustin, 1983; Dustin & McAvoy, 1984).

Organizations are commonly concerned with decision making of agency personnel regarding visitor services and whether or not decisions are made in accordance with the goals and values of the organization. In the case of many park and recreation agencies, important decisions frequently occur when park rangers communicate with park visitors. Situations often develop in which park rangers have significant latitude in making decisions based on the goals and values of the organization. Therefore, park rangers may be instrumental in the control or regulation of park visitor behavior. The outcome of these decisions could have a significant effect on the experiences of park visitors.

Previous studies by researchers and practitioners regarding park rangers and their capacity in recreation resource management have primarily focused on liability concerns, employee selection, and the changing role of the park ranger (e.g. Dwyer & Murrell, 1985; Dwyer & Murrell, 1986; Hendricks, 1990; Hendricks & Cruse, 1990; Leroy, Nelson, & Moncrief, 1981). Little attention has been given to the relationship between park rangers and their organization's objectives, and how park rangers make decisions.

Another consideration in park ranger/park visitor interactions is that by the vary nature of the traditional park ranger role, individuals in that field are exposed to a variety of duties and disciplines. The field is highly interdisciplinary relying heavily on both natural and social sciences. Park rangers may be responsible, simultaneously, for managing environmental and human resources, maintaining parks and recreation areas, providing law enforcement services, and interpreting cultural and natural resources to park visitors.

It is intuitively appealing that park rangers may identify with any one of these roles more than another, thereby affecting their decisions when dealing with park visitors. The outcome of these decisions could have a significant effect on the behaviors and experiences of park visitors. Therefore, the process leading to decision making of park rangers should be a concern in the initiation and direction of park management practices, and the further development of outdoor recreation theories.

Further understanding of the process leading to management actions and practices is needed to improve theoretical and managerial implications of direct and indirect management approaches. The purpose of this paper is to propose a model of the direct/indirect management approach that will provide a theoretical base for these strategies and advance the understanding of decision making by parks and recreation personnel. It will be suggested that role and organizational identification influence park personnel decisions to use direct or indirect management approaches.

Direct/Indirect Management Approaches

One direction in the study of outdoor recreation management strategies has focused on the tactics employed to control visitor behavior (Manning, 1986). Two tactics, direct and indirect, are generally recognized as means of regulating behavior in recreation settings (Manning; Hultsman & Hultsman, 1989).

Direct management practices emphasize control, regulation, and limitations on an individual's freedom and behavior in an outdoor recreation setting (Hendee, Stankey, & Lucas, 1978; Lime, 1979; McAvoy & Dustin, 1983; Manning, 1986). These approaches are characterized by overt methods such as law enforcement and activity restrictions (Vander Stoep & Gramann, 1987). Examples of such practices are citations issued for illegal campfires (Manning), increased patrol or surveillance in a park, limiting fishing in a particular area (Lime; Manning), and prohibiting mountain bikes on hiking trails (Table 1).

Indirect approaches, which are designed to manage visitor behavior without restricting freedom or choice, have also been studied in-depth (Hendee, Stankey, & Lucas, 1978; Lime, 1979; McAvoy & Dustin, 1983; Manning, 1986). These management programs often attempt to change use patterns by communicating relevant information to park visitors through educational programs or other means (Manning). Examples of these practices include formal interpretive programs, the implementation of entrance fees, maintaining areas in an undeveloped state (Lime; Manning), and informational brochures to wilderness visitors to redistribute use (e.g. Lucas, 1981; Lime & Lucas, 1977; Roggenbuck & Berrier, 1981) (Table 1).

The primary difference in the direct and indirect approach lies in the freedom of choice given to outdoor recreation participants in determining their behavior (Figure 1). In the direct approach, the park or wilderness visitor is given little opportunity to choose their behavior in a recreational setting. Management action that is implemented directly regulates and controls behavior. The indirect approach leaves much of the control and choice of behavior to the recreation participant. Management practices are aimed at influencing behavior with a minimum amount of control. (Hendee, Stankey, & Lucas, 1978; Lime, 1979; Manning, 1986).

Theoretical Approach

The development of a theoretical foundation to evaluate direct/indirect management approaches needs further progress (Hultsman & Hultsman, 1989). The practical and theoretical effectiveness of indirect approaches has also been questioned (McAvoy & Dustin, 1983). Vander Stoep and Gramann (1987), stipulate that most previous indirect management studies have not been adequately driven by theory. One exception to this lack of a theoretical basis, as noted by Vander Stoep and Gramann, was a study on litter control and intervention conducted by Christensen (1981). Other studies grounded in sound theory have focused on prosocial behavior as a conceptual basis for indirect management approaches (e.g. Gramann & Vander Stoep, 1986; Vander Stoep & Gramann, 1987).

Absent from these few theoretically based studies and other investigations of indirect and direct management practices is the examination of the process that leads to the decisions made by managers and other land management personnel. As previously mentioned park rangers are often the organizational members implementing direct and indirect management practices in efforts to change or alter visitor behavior.

It is proposed here that a theoretical grounding in the identification/decision making theory will further develop knowledge of indirect and direct management approaches. This specific body of literature centered within the study of organizational communication has focused on decision making based on the decision premises derived from organizational identification. (e. g. Cheney, 1983; Simon, 1976; Tompkins & Cheney, 1983, 1985). Theoretically, it

has been demonstrated that decisions are based on the premises of, and identification with a salient organizational target (Cheney, 1983). Thus, the theory may assist in developing an understanding of how indirect and direct management approaches are chosen.

Identification is a key variable in understanding the decision making process that occurs within an organization (Simon, 1976). Identification with an organization has been determined to influence the decision premises of an individual (Cheney, 1983; Simon, 1976; Tompkins & Cheney, 1983, 1985, 1987). The more an employee identifies with an organization the more the decision premises of the organization are imbedded in the individual. In other words, "the organization becomes as much a part of the member as the member is a part of the organization" (Bullis & Tompkins, 1989, p. 289). Therefore, when organizational identification occurs, the organization can be more confident that decisions will be made as desired (Figure 2).

A key to understanding the theoretical background of Simon's work is based on his treatment of decision premises. Simon (1976) suggested that the decision premise was the appropriate unit of analysis for the study of human behavior in organizations. He proposed that a role, or an act were too broad to conceptualize in the study of human behavior. Tompkins and Cheney (1983) note the importance of decision premises by suggesting that the identification process is initiated when objectives, values or goals are communicated to an individual in a manner that encourages acceptance of the premises. When an individual identifies with the target the process is completed.

Tompkins and Cheney (1985, p. 194) have perhaps best explained the importance of identification by pointing out that, "Our identifications focus our attention in two ways: (1) by guiding us to 'see' certain 'problems' and alternatives, and (2) by biasing our choices toward alternatives tied to the most salient identifications." Identification, thus acts as an agent to limit the alternatives available to an individual when making decisions. Only those identification targets that are salient to the individual will be considered in the decision making process (Simon, 1976; Tompkins & Cheney, 1983, 1985). Simon (1976, p. 205) explained the relationship of identification to decision making by stating, "A person identifies with a group when, in making a decision, he evaluates the several alternatives of choice in terms of the consequences for the specified group." This operational definition of organizational identification has been expanded and altered slightly to its redefinition offered by Tompkins and Cheney (1985, p. 194) which asserts, "A decision maker identifies with an organization when he or she desires to choose the alternative that best promotes the perceived interests of that organization." This definition allows for a clear distinction between the operational definition of organizational identification and other potential identification targets.

Researchers have emphasized that identification may be a process and a product (Cheney & Tompkins, 1987). An example of identification as a product occurs when it is an outcome derived through socialization. This socialization could lead to identification with a number of potential identification targets. It may also be conceptualized as an ongoing process, represented by changes in identification targets, unobtrusive control, and the continual development of individual-organization relationships (Cheney, 1983). March and Simon (1958), identified four principle targets of identification that employees may associate with: (a) the organization; (b) subgroups within the organization; (c) external organizations; and (d) the tasks completed as a function of a role in the organization. These four categories simplify the complexity of organizational identification and present a starting point for determining specific subunits with which an organization's members may identify. The four principles are intuitively appealing and are easily identified by an agency's management. This would allow a manager to begin to evaluate if the identification targets have similar or disparate goals from those of the mission of the organization.

A Direct/Indirect Decision Model

Based on the need to improve our knowledge and to further develop indirect and direct management approaches in outdoor recreation, a model is proposed which combines organizational identification theory to these approaches (Figure 3). The model is based at the field level since management actions are often initiated by rangers (Hendee, Stankey, & Lucas, 1978).

The model provides two possible identification targets as suggested by March and Simon (1958). The first of these is role identification of park rangers. Specifically, law enforcement and interpretation roles are suggested due to the relationship of these roles to direct (regulative) and indirect (educational) management approaches. The second target in the model is organizational identification. It is conceivable that the overall values and goals of an organization may be aimed toward direct or indirect strategies depending on the overall mission of the agency. The acceptance of these identification targets will lead to the internalization of decision premises which may influence the use of indirect or direct management practices.

Managerial and Theoretical Implications

Acceptance of the indirect/direct decision model will provide a theoretical basis for the decisions made in land management agencies aimed at controlling or influencing the behavior of park visitors. Thus far, recreation researchers have paid little attention to the process leading to indirect and direct tactics. Evaluation of these processes is also lacking (Robertson, 1981; Samdahl, Christensen, & Clark, 1982). Future studies utilizing the model may provide recreation researchers with a theory to evaluate both the outcomes of management approaches and the process leading to the acceptance of specific strategies.

The model also provides land managers with a means of determining if decisions being made by agency personnel are in agreement with those desired by the organization. In particular, an evaluation may be made of whether or not park rangers in a specific agency or park unit are employing management approaches that tend to be oriented towards interpretation or law enforcement. As indicated previously, the use of indirect or direct approaches can greatly influence visitor behavior and experiences. If there is a contradiction between the types of approaches being utilized and those desired by an agency, the socialization and training of an agency may need to be reviewed and evaluated in order to implement measures to assure desirable decisions and interaction with park visitors.

References

Bullis, C. A., & Tompkins, P. A. (1989). The forest ranger revisited: a study of control practices and identification. Communication Monographs, 56, 287-306.

Campbell, F. L., Hendee, J. C., & Clark, R. (1968). Law and order in public parks. Parks and Recreation, 3(12), 28-31, 51-55.

Cheney, G. (1983). The rhetoric of identification and the study of organizational communication. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 69, 143-158.

Cheney, G., & Tompkins, P. K. (1987). Coming to terms with organizational identification and commitment. The Central States Speech Journal, 38(1), 1-15.

Christensen, H. H. (1981). Bystander intervention and litter control: Evaluations of an appeal-to-help program. Research Paper PNW-287. Portland, OR: USDA Forest Service.

Dustin, D. L., & McAvoy, L. H. (1984). The limitation of the traffic light. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 3(2), 28-32.

Dwyer, W. O., & Murrell, D. S. (1985). Negligence in visitor safety. Parks and Recreation, 20(1), 68-70, 72.

Dwyer, W. O., & Murrell, D. S. (1986). Future trends in park protection. Parks and Recreation, 21(2), 52-55.

Gramann, J. H., & Vander Stoep, G. A. (1986). Prosocial behavior theory and natural resource protection: A conceptual synthesis. Unpublished manuscript.

Hendee, J. C., Stankey, G. H., & Lucas, R. C. (1978). Wilderness management. Miscellaneous Publication 1365. USDA, Forest Service.

Hendricks, B. (1990). Park law enforcement, deadly force and civil rights. The California Ranger: A Journal for Park Professionals, 5(8), 8-13.

Hendricks, B., & Cruse, L. D. (1990). Park ranger professionalism: Forward or backward? Journal of Recreation and Leisure, 10(1), 187-198.

Hultsman, W. Z., & Hultsman, J. T. (1989). Attitudes and behaviors regarding visitor-control measures in fragile environments: Implications for recreation management. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 7(3), 60-69.

Leroy, L., Nelson, C., & Moncrief, L. A. (1981). To arm or not to arm. Parks and Recreation, 16(6), 38-40.

Lime, D. W. (1979). Carrying capacity. Trends, 16(2), 37-40.

Lime, D. W., & Lucas, R. C. (1977). Good information improves the wilderness experience. Naturalist, 28, 18-20.

Lucas, R. C. (1981). Redistributing wilderness use through information supplied to visitors. Research Paper INT-277. USDA, Forest Service.

Manning, R. E. (1986). Studies in outdoor recreation: A review and synthesis of the social science literature in outdoor recreation. Corvallis, OR: Oregon State University Press.

March, J., & Simon, H. (1958). Organizations. New York: Wiley.

McAvoy, L. H., & Dustin, D. L. (1983). Indirect versus direct regulation of recreation behavior. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 1(4), 12-17.

Peterson, G. L., & Lime, D. W. (1979). People and their behavior: A challenge for recreation management. Journal of Forestry, 77, 343-346.

Robertson, R. (1981). Visitor knowledge affect visitor behavior. In D. Lime (Ed.), Forest and River Recreation Research Update (pp. 49-51). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin.

Roggenbuck, J. W., & Berrier, D. L. (1981). Communications to disperse wilderness campers. Journal of Forestry, 79, 295-297.

Samdahl, D. M., H. H. Christensen, and Clark, R. N. (1982). Prevention and control of depreciative behavior in recreation areas: managerial concerns and research needs. Forest and River Recreation: Research Update,

Agricultural Experiment Station Miscellaneous Publication 18. University of Minnesota, 52-54.

Simon, H. (1976). Administrative Behavior (3rd ed.). New York: Free Press.

Tompkins, P. K., & Cheney, G. (1983). Account analysis of organizations decision making and identification. In L. L. Putnam & M. E. Pacanowsky (Eds.), Communication and Organizations: An Interpretive Approach (pp. 123-146). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Tompkins, P. K., & Cheney, G. (1985). Communication and unobtrusive control. In R. McPhee & P. Tompkins (Eds.), Organizational Communication: Traditional Themes and new directions (pp. 179-210). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Vander Stoep, G. A., & Gramann, J. H. (1987). The effect of verbal appeals and incentives on depreciative behavior among youthful park visitors. Journal of Leisure Research, 19, 69-83.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT APPROACHES

Direct	Indirect
Emphasis on regulation of behavior; visitor choice restricted; control high	Emphasis on influencing or modifying behavior; visitor choice maintained; control low
APPROACH EXAMPLES:	APPROACH EXAMPLES:
Issue citations Increased patrol Use and activity restrictions Spatial zones	Education Facility development Entrance fees Use redistribution

Table 1

Adapted from Lime, 1979

MANAGEMENT APPROACH

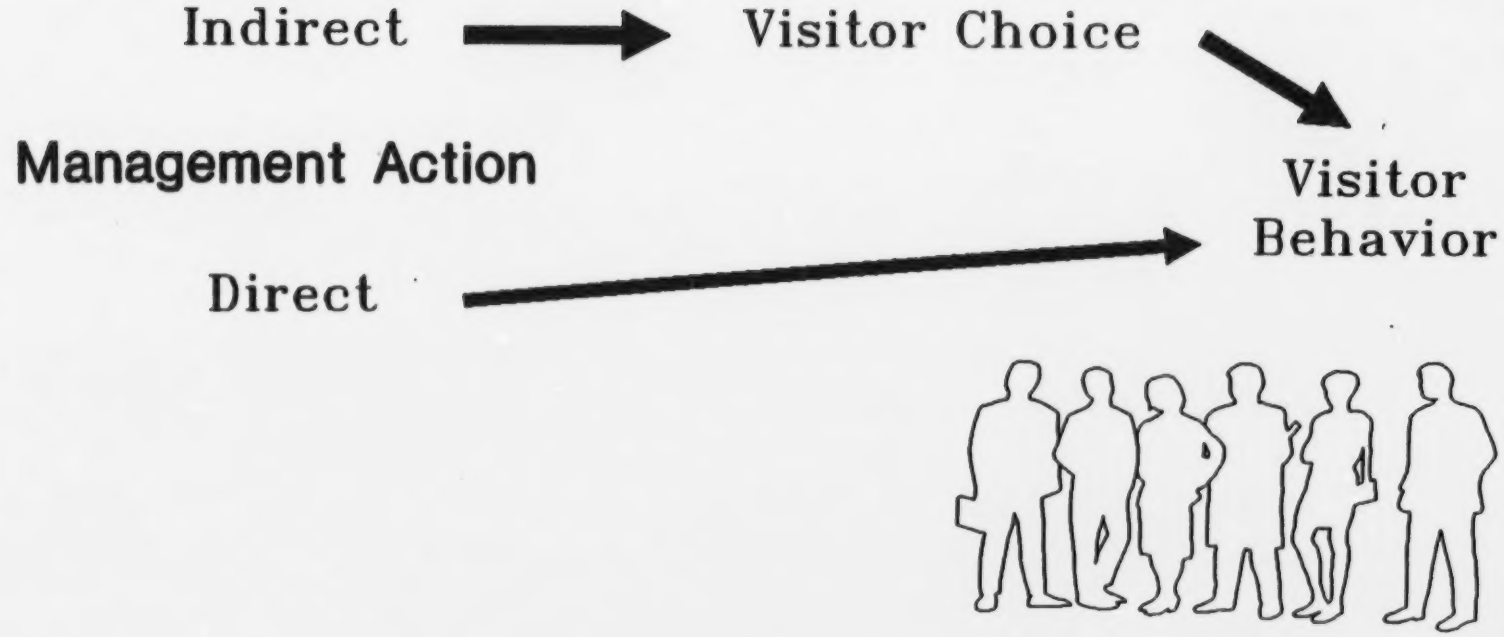


Figure 1

Adapted from Manning, 1985

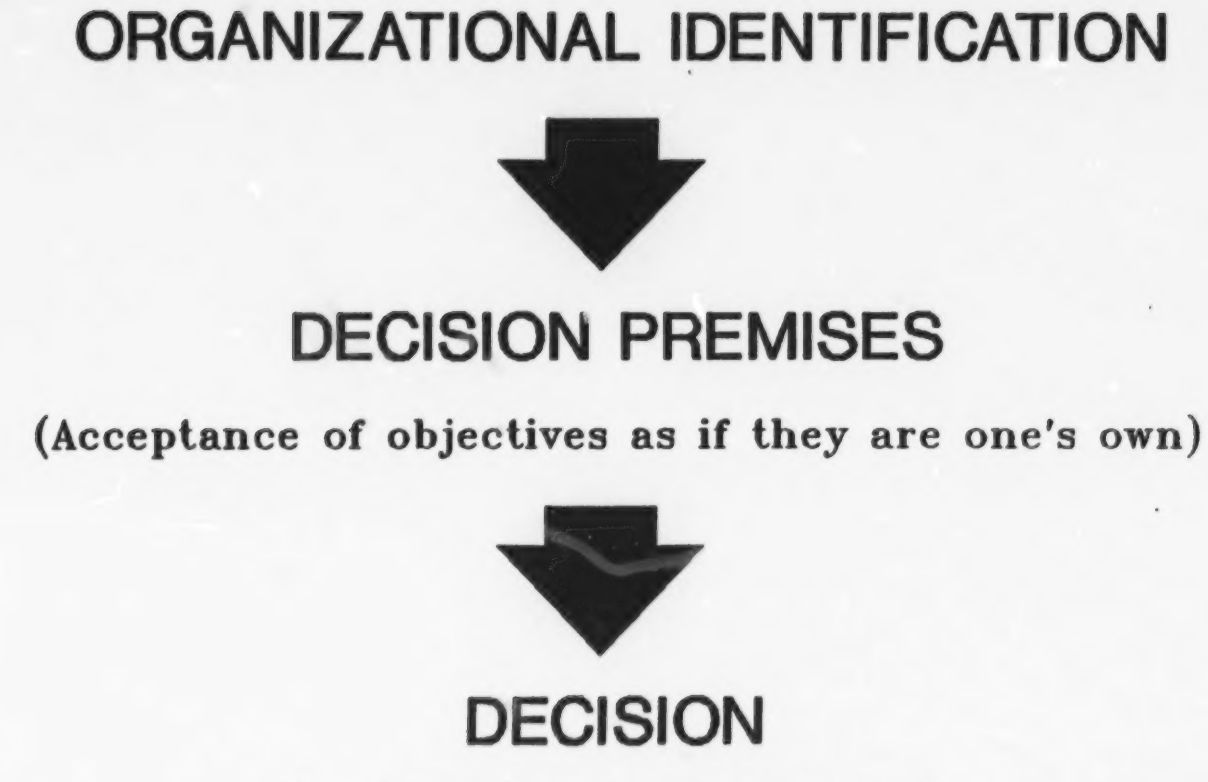

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION
DECISION PREMISES
(Acceptance of objectives as if they are one's own)
DECISION
(As if made by organization)

Figure 2

IDENTIFICATION/DECISION MAKING MODEL

ROLE IDENTIFICATION

Interpretation

Law Enforcement

PREMISES → **DECISION**

Direct Indirect

ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

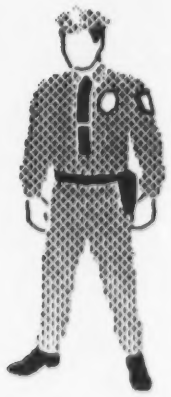


Figure 3

Scaring Up Money

A. Glen Humphreys, Wheeler Historic Farm

Need Money?

Do you want people lined up four across waiting for twenty minutes to give you most of $5.00 each? Yes? Then you maybe interested in the on-site fund raising program conducted by Wheeler Historic Farm. "Haunted Woods" is a successful fund raiser which provides revenue for the living history museum interpretive programs.

Purpose

Special event programs can use your existing facilities to create net revenue for the benefit of your institution. In advance planning and in conducting the event be very clear on the amount of the proposed profit. Some events are so worthwhile that they cost money and are not a fund raiser. Other activities are primarily service oriented and may only break even. True fund raising events aim to generate a profit by keeping the operating expenses at less than half of the revenue from gate receipts.

A second purpose for providing a major attendance event is to provide constructive leisure time activities to replace unsafe and destructive traditional practices.

The Event: What Can We Do?

Choosing the right event for your location and spot on the seasonal calendar is vital for success. Idea lists for events may aid in this selection process. Short events that can be conducted in one day or one weekend include: a facility open house, costume party, dinner party, concert, skill contests, craft fairs, farm show, Easter egg hunt, fireworks, a holiday breakfast, pumpkin carving, scarecrow contests, kite flying contests, ugly pet parade and many more.

Long run events require more staffing, finances, organization and resources than the one day activities. Ideas for events with up to 20 day runs include: Haunted Woods, summer stock theater, Christmas plays, Christmas sleigh rides, and children's story time.

The commitment: Can "we" do it?

Are you ready to take a risk? Can you and your institution afford to fail big with everyone watching? Risk takers should lead the event and be firm in their resolve to make the event happen despite production problems, criticism, worries, and complaints. The most significant part of the commitment is the creative idea. What is unique, appealing, sized to fit the facilities, and will appeal to a significant share of the market. Next commit to quality. Do the very best quality event possible with the existing financial and physical limits. You want "to do it again" another time. You will stay in the same location and quality builds your reputation. Yes, the entire reputation of the organization and the staff depend on the quality of the special event. Many first time participants are introduced to an organization such as a museum by coming to a special event. When they like the special event a large number will return for other activities.

Commitment means resources. Plan and make available resources of staff time, location, physical facilities, supplies and start up financing. Hire the skills and buy the supplies that are necessary to put on the special event. All these costs represent capital at risk, but remember you are running the show.

How to do a Haunted Woods

Once you have the creative idea, the clear purpose, the commitment, the location and dates then "lets get to work and make it happen".

Step one. Organize a special event production committee. This production group will be responsible for all aspects of the event from refining the idea, promotion, staffing, site preparation, script, special permits, construction, set placement, sound, lights, costumes, make up, tickets, concessions, money handling, clean up, parking, set removal, set restoration, storage, user surveys, and advance planning for next time. The regular staff of the organization have the greatest long term commitment to lead the special event production group. Reputations are at risk so make it the best of your choice of events.

Schedule production meeting to plan the show, report progress, review budget and fill vacancies. Holding the meeting monthly on long term planning may be sufficient. Weekly the last month before opening night is recommended.

A production schedule is the first order of business to decide when phases of the production need to be accomplished. Observe these deadlines or opening night will be adversely impacted. Avoid the last minute "throw it together" production so common in drama. This will result in poorer quality for the same budget.

The script is the key to the entire production. This work blueprint is the what and how of the production. A scene by scene script must include set descriptions, lighting effects, sound needs, cast, costume descriptions, made-up directions and dialogue special fitted for role playing theater. What can the cast do and say to remain in an identifiable character. How does each scene and cast member relate to an overall story line? Have the script prepared about 6 months before opening night.

The well-being of the audience and cast occupy an important part of planning and execution. Actors should be assigned locations within eye sight of each other so no one is totally alone. Security staff in uniforms may be valuable in patrolling the perimeter to keep out the fence climbers. Parking and crowd control are also part of the hosting needs. Have a means of communication for the security personnel. The well-being also involves permits such as mass gathering permits, health permits, fire and police inspections.

The set construction follows the plans and requirements detailed in the script. A crew of regular employees working on site with a budget for each scene may produce the best results. Build with substantial materials. Plywood panels with a 1" X 4" frame for structural support may be repainted and used over again. The initial expense is justified by the multiple use. Outdoor sets must be substantial to withstand the wind, rain, snow, pounding hands and trampling feet. Plan on major uses of flats and extension cords.

Costumes should be designed to fit the script. The illusion of the event is largely supplied by the costuming. Be inventive and original. Invest in costumes that will be durable. The size is usually extra, extra large for outdoor productions so that the costume may fit over cold or wet weather clothing and be fitted by drawstrings. For repeated productions costumes are an on the shelf investment.

To create illusions, sound is as vital as lights, set and costumes. For outdoor performances a small tape player fitted with a jack to power outdoor speakers is all that is required to provide effective sound from a tape recording. Five minute tape cassettes that auto reverse are excellent for short scenes. Use common technology that many local retail stores carry and any one can operate. Keep it simple.

The actors and actresses actually perform in each show. Role playing means short performances repeated many times each show. Cast from auditions, public or private, to obtain the best quality dramatic ability, dependability and dedication. Usually there is no leading role, star or "Prima dona". Search for able character actors. Pay the cast an honorarium that fits your budget. Then expect professional and regular employment results. Do not be satisfied with weak commitment "volunteer" or community theater attitudes. Hire 10 percent extra at the start of the show to fill in the vacancies as people quit or leave the show. Use the understudy approach so that at least two people know every function. Then rotations of cast may give variety and freshness to the performance. Work attendance records become payroll documents. Pay checks are best issued after the final performance is over and all costumes, props, model releases and payroll documents are returned in proper order.

Event vending with cooperative advertising, spearheaded by a radio station may be at the center of your promotion strategy. First identify the target audience this event will fit. Choose a media station, radio or television, that is very strong in reaching the target audience. A rock station may reach young people but not the gray hair set. Make the right match. Have the station put together a promotion package they sell to sponsors that will buy air time for this worth while community event. You may provide on site advertising with the presence of a sponsor banner during the event. Advertise on programs, ticket backs, coupons or on site product distribution. Even a ticket discount can be given for a major sponsor. Coupons obtained at retail outlets are positive traffic builders, or simply give a discount for a product label. Other promotion devices that are effective are handbills, posters, news releases, and public service television spots.

The money trail is to be a secure, confidential, easily audited route for both money and paper records. The goal is to sell tickets rapidly move the money quickly to secure areas and deposit safely each day. The paper records should record the errors and show that no funds were diverted from the deposit. Pay out funds are a separate procedure from the ticket sales. Use a central cashier and issue tickets or other kinds of receipts to be presented at the control points for admission to the event.

"Hurrah its over"

Quickly hold a post mortem meeting with all the members of the production committee to decide what worked well and may be repeated. Also identify failures that should be avoided next time. Will we do it again? Were our goals accomplished? What did the audience surveys tell us. Many positive answers should result in immediate plans for the event next time. Start planning now for next year while memories are fresh.

The Exposition Industry: New Opportunities for Parks and Recreation

Art Jones, Utah State University

One related industry which has gone virtually unnoticed by the recreation profession is the Exposition Industry. as an industry, Expositions operate in all fifty states, hire thousands of employees, attract millions of attendees, contribute billions to the economy, and enjoy widespread public support.

The industry is organized nationwide into a very active association known as the International Association of Fairs and Expositions (IAFE) with headquarters in Springfield, Missouri. The association has a membership of over 3000 fairs and festivals throughout the United States and Canada (IAFE directory, 1990). The IAFE keeps statistics on all events who have membership in the association. Such events include some of the largest fairs and festivals in North America such as the Texas and Ohio State Fairs, both of which boast attendance of over 3 million annually. Table 1 gives the number of fairs listed for each state.

TABLE I

Number of IAFE Fairs Per State

Mr. Lewis Miller, Executive Director for IAFE, estimated that upwards of 100 million Americans attend a fair or festival each year (personal interview, September 26, 1989, Marietta, Georgia).

Community support for expositions is also enormous. In virtually every state for example, the state fair is well advertised and often the best attended event in the state. In addition to the larger fairs there are thousands of smaller county fairs and festivals which require the same organization and management as the larger ones. In most cases the smaller events are partially

supported by local appropriations and often have the only public buildings for recreation other than school or churches. In fact, the American fair has been an important American tradition since the 1700's (Lewis Miller, 1990). Much like Parks and Recreation, the fairs and festivals involve programs for all the citizens and cooperate closely with local government, business, sponsors and volunteers. Much like recreation they are family oriented and seek to satisfy a large percentage of citizens.

Related Program Components

The program components for the typical fair are broken into departments as are the departments in Parks and Recreation. With the possible exception of the livestock department, the organization and management schemes are similar. Table II is an illustration of some traditional fair departments and their recreation equivalent. While not a perfect match, the similarities are surprising.

TABLE II
Traditional Fair Departments and Their Recreation Equivalent

Fair Department	Recreation Equivalent
Administration	Administration
Building and Grounds	Parks and Facilities
Interim Events	Recreation Activities
* dances	* sports
* parties	* games
* crafts	* dances
* sales	* parties
Fair Events	Special Events
* exhibits	* tournaments
* entertainment	* holiday celebrations
* livestock	* zoos
* concessions	* concessions

Employment Patterns and Salary Ranges

In a 1985 study, the IAFE surveyed its members to analyze what types of positions were common to fairs and what the salary ranges were (IAFE Comprehensive Management Survey, 1985). Tables II and IV summarize the data for the five most often reported positions.

TABLE III
Employment patterns at American Fairs

Position	Full Time	Part Time	Volunteer Coordinator	None	No Answer
Manager	71%	10%	18%	1%	
Bldgs & Grounds Manager	59%	15%	7%	14%	5%
Office Manager	47%	8%	7%	34%	4%
Finance/ Bookkeeper	41%	24%	10%	21%	5%
Asst. Mgr. Program ldrs.	34%	7%	7%	45%	7%

TABLE IV
Salary Ranges for Fair Positions (in Thousands)

Position	$5 5-9.9	$10 14.9	$15 19.9	$20 24.9	$25 29.9	$30 34.9	$35 39.9	$40+
Manager	-----	2%	8%	8%	16%	8%	16%	42%
Bldgs & Grounds	8%	14%	24%	23%	14%	9%	4%	4%
Office Mgr.	1%	7%	34%	29%	15%	6%	1%	1%
Finance/ Bkkpr.	4%	15%	27%	16%	15%	9%	5%	5%
Asst. Mgr.	-----	3%	8%	12%	14%	15%	12%	5%

From the writer's twenty year experience as a state fair manager and professor of expositions and recreation, it is his confident judgment that job descriptions and work duties for managers, assistant managers, and buildings and grounds, supervisors especially are highly related. In the case of the Park Superintendent and Buildings and grounds Supervisor, they both have responsibilities for park and grounds operations including planting, mowing, maintaining, fertilizing, watering, etc. In the case of assistant managers, they are routinely given responsibility for specific programs such as the recreation program or the interim events program which have been reported previously.

Equivalent Training Patterns

Up until 1986 there was no specific university training or formal education for exposition professionals. Training was usually in-service or experiential with managers coming with agricultural, educational or social science backgrounds.

Recognizing a need to provide a university curriculum for the discipline, the IAFE contracted with Georgia State University in Atlanta to develop a curriculum in Expositions as part of their nationally recognized school of Hospitality Administration.

As the curriculum was organized and courses developed, they became near copies of professional recreation courses. Instruction in Exposition Philosophy, Exposition Programming, Exposition Areas and Facilities, and Exposition Administration are examples of courses which are found in most university Park and Recreation departments.

Today, the Georgia State Program is still the only one of its kind in the nation with broad based industry support and hundreds of potential employment opportunities for graduates.

Opportunity Linkages

Based upon the foregoing discussion, it appears that the next step would be to find ways for Parks and Recreation to "link up" with expositions for mutually beneficial understanding, programs and employment. three suggestions for linkups may include:

1. For Parks and Recreation professionals to affiliate with local, state and national fair associations where dialogue and interchange could take place for students, practitioners and educators alike. The getting acquainted process could best be facilitated by attendance and participation.

2. For Parks and Recreation professors to research exposition philosophy and practice in an effort to offer courses which would prepare students for employment as well as provide fair practitioners university courses.

3. The reciprocal sharing of both human and material resources would naturally lead to mutual understanding and support for both industries. Cooperation in such areas as computer programs, organisational patterns and management suggestions along with the sharing of facilities and equipment may lead to worthwhile associations, resulting in support and many new opportunities for Parks and Recreation.

References

International Association of Fairs and Expositions. Comprehensive Management Survey (1985 update.) Springfield, Missouri.

International Association of Fairs and Expositions. 1990 Membership Directory. Springfield, Missouri.

Logan City Parks and Recreation Department. Fall '91 Brochure. Logan Parks and Recreation Department. Logan, Utah.

Salt Lake County, Parks and Recreation Department. Sports and Recreation Magazine. Salt Lake County Parks and Recreation. Salt Lake City, Utah.

Change and the Future

Daniel D. McLean and Ruth V. Russell, Indiana University

The future. What does it hold for us? What should we do now to prepare for it? How can we anticipate for it, so that we can achieve what we want it to achieve for us? The future. It is an unknown. It is an enigma. It is tomorrow and we wish we knew what it held for us. The future is an uncertainty for all of us.

Many millions of dollars have been spent trying to anticipate the future. Jules Vernes, Leonardo de Vinci and other great minds had wonderful imaginations that allowed them to visualize alternative futures. Most of us are not so blessed. Yet, we should be comforted by the fact that most generations have successfully gone into the future. Granted, there have been some notable exceptions, but by and large the human race has been successful about moving into the future. It has been primarily during periods of radical social change that traumatic transitions to the future have been difficult or painful. Moving into the future may effect individuals and societies in dramatic ways, but for the most part moving into the future is a series of small changes, that over time, are revealed as major cultural and value shifts.

Our society is continually going through changes in its value systems. Changes are occurring more rapidly than ever before. Carl Sagan (1977) has suggested if we represent all the time that has elapsed since the beginning of the universe as a single year, then just the use of science and technology by human beings would have begun only during the last second of the last minute of the last day of that year. Diebold (1984) reports that, "technological innovations have often led to changes in society. Seldom, however, have so many fundamental social issues been posed so rapidly as has been the case in the veritable explosion of information technology—computers and communications. This technology promises to change the very fabric of society, and in the process a wide range of the most basic ethical, legal, and moral questions must be faced if we are to make our future work" (p. 308).

Recent reports about the availability of leisure time have been conflicting, but it is generally agreed that the amount of leisure time is decreasing (Godbey, 1989; Harris, 1987). The change has been linked to many factors, but one of the primary causes has been the shift toward a more service oriented economy with more salaried workers who generally work longer hours, an increase in time spent commuting, and a rise in the number of adults who are going back to school.

How do public leisure service agencies respond to such challenges? Balmer (1991) indicated that many agencies are overwhelmed by the need to be tough. The rapidity of change has made public leisure service managers conceptualize every aspect of their work -- fiscal resources, staffing patterns, program orientation, marketing mix, public relations and promotional strategies, foundations for service -- essentially a redefinition of what business we are in.

The problem faced by most public leisure service agency managers is the determination or realization of how they go about assimilating and utilizing the various changes wrought by a rapidly changing society. Leisure service professionals are in jeopardy of being left behind unless they are willing to change <u>how</u> they think about the ways they do business. In order to accomplish this leisure service managers must rethink the underlying values they make decisions upon and how their organizations values reflect those of society at large. Further, leisure service managers must be prepared to systematically deal with societal value shifts and to evaluate their agency's ability to respond or assimilate those shifts. The need to be responsive is reflected in the very mission of public parks and recreation -- to provide quality services that

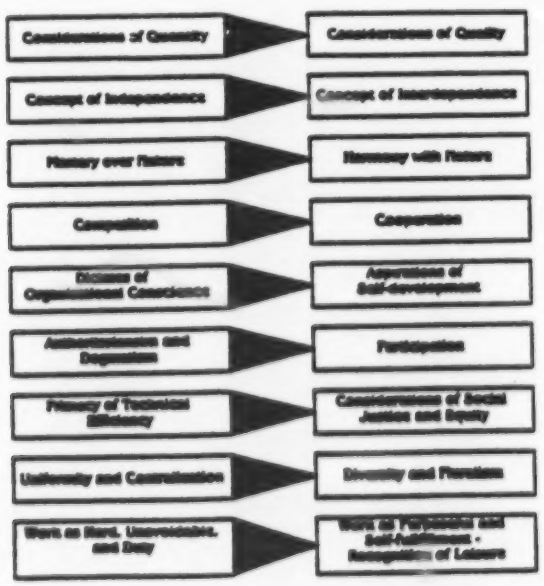
enhance the members of a community and the community's collective quality of life.

Modeling Values

Agencies must deal with their beliefs, the values they hold about the future. Cauthen (1985) has written that the values that have dominated American thinking since the eighteenth century are breaking down and are being replaced by another configuration of ideas that are referred to as the "new ideology." The old ideology of individualism, property rights, competition, the limited state and scientific specialization is being replaced by the new ideology of communitarianism, rights of membership, community need taking precedence over individual preference, the state as planner, and holism.

Wilson (1975) has provided a paradigm for shifting values currently being faced by American society (See Table 1). Each of the patterns in the paradigm suggest a shift from a more traditional set of values to a more humanistic and responsive set of values that include mutual dependence. For park and recreation managers this has significant inference. It suggests an organic wholeness as an ideal situation in which each part of the recreation service system mutually sustains the others in a way that promotes the basic goals of the whole community system and meets the essential needs of each individual.

Table 1: Shifting Values[1]



[1]Based on Wilson (1975)

What are ethical responses to the future to be pursued by public park and recreation directors? How are ethical responses formulated? How does one assure that ethical responses are consistent with changing as well as conflicting values and morals.

Ethics is best described as a reflection of values. Engel and Engel (1990) suggested the nature of ethics as a reflection of morality, a disciplined reflection about morality, moral problems and moral judgements. Guralnik (1976) has defined ethics as the system of morals of a particular group. It can be

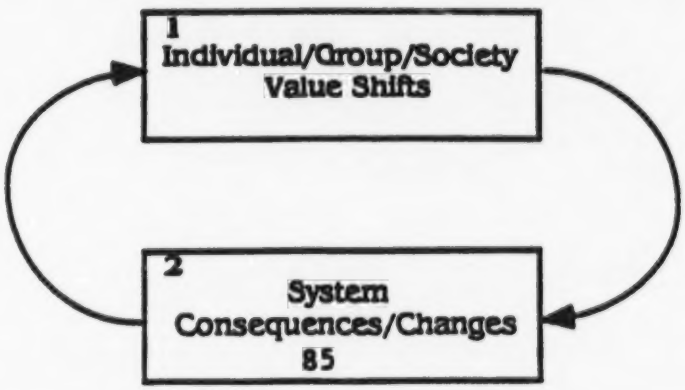
suggested that ethical responses are the outgrowth of the values and morality of a society.

The transfer of values from individuals to groups is significant and may present a major challenge to park and recreation managers. How managers respond to the changing values of the society they are in may have a fundamental impact on the future of the agency and how it is viewed within the context of its community.

A Paradigm for Change

The impact of value shifts and their influence on how agencies will respond in the future is essential for managers to understand if they are to successfully prepare to meet tomorrow's challenges. Ingelhart (1977) proposed a model for ethical based responses to future value shifts. A modification of that paradigm (see Figure 1) supports the transition from a materialist to a postmaterialist value system (Wilson's proposition of value shifts).

Figure 1: Dyamic Change Process



The paradigm suggests changes in individual ethics are manifest through changes in group and societal ethics (box 1). Together these form the first stage of the paradigm. They represent the impetus for system changes (box 2). Most governments operate at this level. The system changes reflect an organizations response to individual, group and societal value shifts. The energy created by individual, group and societal changes, operating as pressures external to the organization, explode on the organization's operating and delivery systems. Organizations must provide a response to the energy created by individual and societal value shifts. Agencies can respond to the energy created by voluntarily responding (through an anticipation of the future) or by a forced response (reacting to energy created by societal value shifts). Regardless of how the response is initiated, change is the response. The response by the agency acts as a new energy acting on individuals and groups (box 1). The cycle continues to renew itself.

The system-level changes can be interpreted as responses to individual and societal value shifts that are currently or potentially impacting upon public park and recreation systems. Individual-level changes focus on changes that occur within individual constituents and personnel. In this model those are reflected as values (values which collectively alter societal values) and skills (new ways of looking or doing things, or refinements of existing approaches various aspects of life). Finally, the system-level or agency consequences

reflect on potential outcomes from the interaction of the system and individual, group and societal values (Ingelhart, 1977).

Public park and recreation agencies can adapt this paradigm to recognize and develop responses to existing and perceived changes in the individual/group values around them. The values expressed in the individual-level changes, as presented in the model in Figure 1, occur as a result of system level changes. System-level consequences will be the ethical responses park and recreation professionals make. The model suggests the process is symmetrical with a continuous emphasis on the dynamic nature of change.

Concluding Thoughts

Societal value shifts are a constant. Responding to changing values and ethics is a given park and recreation agencies must address. Agencies must reflect on who they are, what their values are, and whether their values are consistent with the community they serve. Agencies must express ethical responses established on shared values with the organization and community. This article suggests that change is a dynamic and imperfect process; that agencies must now initiate their quest to be responsive to changing societal values; that agencies must monitor and develop ethical response systems for changing values; that agencies must know their own value system and those of their key decision makers; and that agencies must assess their decision making models and their relationship to community ties.

The future is there for park and recreation agencies to prepare for. The choice to be proactive or reactive. The foundation for change must be consistent with societal values and ethics. Those values appear to be shifting to a postmaterialist society. Public agencies can develop ethical responses to value shifts that are consistent with societal morals.

References

Balmer, K. R. (1991). Is there a future for public sector parks and recreation? Recreation Canada, 49(2), 16-24.

Cauthen, E. (1985). Imaging the future: New visions and new responsibilities. Zygon, 20(3), 321-339.

Diebold, J. (1984). Making the Future Work. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Engel, J. R., & Engel, J. G. (Eds.). (1990). Ethics of Environment and Development: Global Challenge, International Response. Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona Press.

Godbey, G. (1989). The Future of Leisure Services: Thriving on Change. State College, PA: Venture Publishing, Inc.

Guralnik, D. B. (Ed.). (1976). Websters New World Dictionary of the American Language. New York: William Collins, World Publishing Company, Inc.

Harris, L. (1987). Inside America. New York: Vintage Publishers.

Inglehart, R. (1977). The Silent Revolution: Changing Values and Political Styles Among Western Republics. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Sagan, C. (1977). The Dragons of Eden — Speculation on the Revolution of Human Beings. New York: Random House.

Wilson, J. (1975). The Next 25 Years: Crisis and Opportunity. Washington, D. C.: World Future Society.

Managing User Conflicts: A Growing Challenge for Outdoor Recreation Managers

Douglas C. Nelson, Brigham Young University

Nearly every morning as we open the day's paper we can read headlines boldly exclaiming how this group or that group is crying out for its members' "rights." Rights to do this, and rights to do that. Oftentimes, these so-called rights come seemingly at the expense of rights belonging to another.

For most recreation professionals, these arguments may seem remote and inconsequential, however, not even members of the recreation field are immune. For us the question is where do the rights of one recreationist end and the rights of another begin? Let us examine the following scenario:

The Smith family had been looking forward to this day for nearly a year. Once again the time had come for the family's annual camping and fishing trip to Lake Good-Time -- a public recreation facility. Jack and Jill, along with their five children, took up temporary residence in their favorite camping spot and began their quest for a quality recreation experience in a natural setting.

After two quiet, peaceful days of fishing the Smiths were joined by some new campground neighbors. With the arrival of the Joneses' came loud music, a jet powered ski boat that could be heard for miles as it roared over the lake's crystal clear water, a trailer full of all-terrain cycles, and a gas powered generator for their portable satellite dish and television.

While one family was seeking a quiet, back-to-nature experience, the other was looking for high-tech fun and excitement. The natural result of this combination of dissimilar recreational pursuits is referred to as a user conflict.

User Conflict Defined

According to Ruddell (1990), "When the behavior of a recreationist or a group of recreationists interferes with the sought-after goals of another and that interfering behavior is attributed to the first, conflict is said to exist" (p. 60). This is exactly what happened between the Smith and the Jones families in our scenario. The Smiths' recreational objectives became overshadowed by the Joneses' more obtrusive pursuits.

Management's Challenge

As the United States population continues to grow, the number of outdoor recreationists follows suit; and as more people seek an ever widening diversity of recreational experiences, an increase in the occurrence of user conflicts is sure to follow. For those in managerial positions there will be increased pressure to mitigate these conflicts.

Currently, 89% of the U.S. population participates in some form of outdoor recreation. As a result, achieving equity in the allocation of scarce natural amenities becomes of great concern to those interested in the provision of quality outdoor recreation opportunities (Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1990, p. 32).

Knudson (1984) wrote that the bottom line to any recreational pursuit is the experience itself. In their activities of choice, recreationists are searching, and expecting, an experience matching up to a predetermined standard of quality. "The sensations, satisfactions, personal challenges, and memories of a recreational outing help comprise the experience .... Recreation is all about how people feel, how they react, and how they enjoy themselves" (p. 23).

The challenge for today's recreation manager is to create an environment in which the recreationist can have the quality experience he is seeking, while at the same time preventing one individual's (or group's) experience from degrading that of another.

The ever expanding range of recreational pursuits available in America today makes meeting that challenge an increasingly difficult assignment, and creates a situation in which user conflicts are almost inevitable.

Since recreationists are not on equal terms in the conditions value or the social and resource impacts they generate, impacts are often unavoidable and unidirectional. Hikers impose few inconveniences upon ORV [off-road vehicle] riders, but ORV users have a more profound impact on hikers. Similarly one-way conflicts have been drawn between hikers and horsepackers, skiers and snowmobilers, commercial groups and private visitors, and backpackers and mountain bikers (Ewert & *Hollenhorst, 1990, p. 34). Further complicating the task of managing user conflicts is the tendency for recreationists with similar interests to congregate in specific locations -- oftentimes in an area of limited resources. Within these user groups are accepted norms of behavior and tolerance levels for the impacts of their member's activities on the environment and on each other (Whittaker & Shelby, 1988, p. 261).

This seemingly innocent pattern of congregation by recreationists leads to conflicts when non-compatible user groups attempt to use the same facilities, or resources, at the same time. For example, at the Lake Mead National Recreation Area (NRA), user conflicts became a problem when water-skiers, pleasure boaters, jet-skiers, wind surfers, and swimmers were all attempting to use the same beach area simultaneously.

Newton Sikes (1990), chief ranger at the Lake Mead NRA, identified three factors that lead to user conflicts: (a) the size of the resource being used, (b) the number of people wanting to use that resource, and (c) the compatibility of the users or activities. These factors, he stated, are virtually the same for any recreation facility.

Five Methods of Managing User Conflicts

Prevention, and resolution, of conflicts between recreationists presents managers with the delicate task of managing the recreational activities of both groups and individuals. Five possible methods for controlling behavior and reducing conflicts, as outlined and discussed by Sikes (1990), are (a) the power of suggestion, (b) zoning, (c) facility design, (d) limiting use of the resource, and (e) law enforcement.

Power of Suggestion

The Power of Suggestion method utilizes publicity campaigns to sell a specifically targeted user group on the benefits of recreating in a particular area of the resource. For example, jet-skiers would be directed towards one location on a reservoir as being "the" ideal spot for that activity, and water-skiers would be directed to another.

When power of suggestion is successful, members of common user groups begin to congregate at the specified locations (Whittaker & Shelby, 1988), and separation of incompatible user groups is attained without using strict measures of control.

Zoning

Zoning, as the term implies, is similar to zoning practices employed by a city or county entity. Areas throughout the recreation resource are designated for specific uses or activities, however, potentially conflicting activities may

be limited, or even prohibited. At Lake Mead, for example, boaters and jet-skiers are each assigned to their own launching areas in order to prevent conflicts.

Facility Design

Facility design involves such things as landscape design and facility layout. In some cases, shrubs and other types of foliage can be used to create noise buffer zones between campsites or other facilities. Depending on the landscape plan, this can be accomplished with natural or domestic vegetation, or both. In terms of layout and facility design, allowing for more personal space between users and utilizing natural barriers are other ways of preventing conflict.

Limiting Use of the Resource

Limiting resource use involves the use of strict controls like reservation systems to limit the number of people utilizing a resource at any one time. The Grand Canyon, and Yosemite National Parks have already implemented limited use programs to some degree because the carrying capacity of the resources is restricted. "Someday, in the not too distant future, limitation of use may be the normal mode of operation at natural recreation facilities" (Sikes, 1990).

Law Enforcement

Law enforcement involves the exercise of strict legal controls over resource users and their activities. This method should be used only as a last resort. The key is not to exercise too much control because people come to a resource to recreate away from the strict fetters of their jobs and other responsibilities. Enforcement personnel should try not to single out any specific individual or group, but they have to recognize where most of the conflict is coming from. Some things, like loud music, are only controlled through enforcement (Sikes, 1990).

Case Study: Lake Mead National Recreation Area

Located approximately 30 miles from the city of Las Vegas, Nevada, the Lake Mead National Recreation Area (NRA) straddles the Arizona-Nevada Border. From Hoover Dam, Lake Mead stretches 110 miles to the north and includes more than 822 miles of shoreline. Although the recreation area supports a variety of activities, the primary recreational pursuits are water-oriented (National Park Service [NPS], 1986).

Despite its overall size, Lake Mead's functional beach areas are limited. The rough, desert topography surrounding the resource restricts extensive development of beach-type facilities, therefore, most visitor activity is concentrated in a relatively small area known as Boulder Basin, and more specifically to Boulder Beach (NPS, 1986).

With several million recreational visits annually, prevention of user conflicts on Lake Mead has become a formidable task. According the 1990 Visitor and Visitor Use Statistics for the Lake Mead NRA, almost 9 million recreationists visited the resource in that year alone.

This combination of high visitor volume and limited beach resources has yielded an increase in user conflicts. Moreover, these resulting conflicts have led to many severe, and sometimes fatal, injuries (Sikes, 1990).

Historically, officials at the Lake Mead NRA have utilized a combination of the Power of Suggestion and Zoning methods to distribute individual users, and user groups, geographically throughout the resource. However, as the number of

recreationists utilizing the resource has increased, the effectiveness of that program in preventing user conflicts has been greatly reduced (Whitney, 1991).

In response to this rise in user conflicts, Lake Mead officials have prepared a new management plan based solely on zoning. Each user group -- water-skiers, jet-skiers, sailboarders and swimmers -- will have a beach and other physical facilities designated specifically for its own use. Because they account for the majority of conflicts at Lake Mead, the plan also calls for a physical separation, by way of natural barriers, between jet-skiers and water-skiers (NPS, 1991).

Lake Mead officials are hopeful that recreationists will voluntarily adhere to the new zoning regulations. "We hope to gain voluntary participation by creating and developing physical facilities that are attractive to specific user groups" (Sikes, 1991).

As a result of two public meetings held for the purpose of gaining public input into the plan, some minor changes are being made prior to its implementation in Summer 1992 (Whitney, 1991).

Conclusion

Prevention of user conflicts is now, and will continue to be, a growing challenge for today's recreation manager. It is imperative, therefore, that recreation managers develop the ability to control and distribute recreation resources equitably among the various user groups.

The administrator must comprehend how his resources affect the visitor. How can he manipulate them to produce the greatest positive benefit ... ? How can he avoid negative impacts on the visitors? He is in the pleasure business. People seek pleasure outdoors with some desire for freedom, as a contrast to regimented daily living. The administrator must find a level of control that produces the best net positive effect... Control of human behavior requires delicate and unobtrusive, yet effective, channeling of movements to confine impacts. Encouragement of responsible social and environmental behavior is the most important and most efficient tool of the recreation resource manager (Knudson, 1984, p.37-38). As with most problems facing managers in the 1990s, there is no one perfect solution to the dilemma created by user conflicts; but perhaps by studying the efforts being made at the Lake Mead National Recreation Area and other resources, we can glean some ideas for use in our own individual areas of responsibility.

References

Ewert, A., and Hollenhorst, S. (1990, October). Resource Allocation: Inequities in Wildland Recreation. Leisure Today, 32-36.

Knudson, D.M., (1984). Outdoor Recreation. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 23-38.

National Park Service (1986). Final General Management Plan and Alternatives, Lake Mead National Recreation Area. United States Department of the Interior.

National Park Service (1990). Visitor and Visitor Use Statistics for 1990. United States Department of the Interior.

National Park Service (1991). Proposed Beach Management Plan, Boulder District. Lake Mead National Recreation Area, United States Department of the Interior.

Ruddell, E.J., (1990). An Extension of the Goal Interference Model of Recreation Conflict: Exploring the Role of Social Norms [Summary]. Proceedings of the 11th Annual Intermountain Leisure Symposium, 60.

Sikes, M. (1990, November 29). Personal interview with Chief Ranger Sikes, Lake Mead National Recreation Area.

Sikes, M. (1991, May 1). Public meeting on the proposed zoning of recreation areas on Boulder Beach in the Lake Mead National Recreation Area.

Whitney, K. (1991, October). Personal interview with Public Information Officer Whitney, Lake Mead National Recreation Area.

Whittaker, D., and Shelby B. (1988). Types of Norms for Recreation Impacts: Extending the Social Norms Concept. Journal of Leisure Research, 20(4), 261-273.

Financial Resource Adaptation Model (FRAM)
A Discussion Model

Gordon Oles and Trent Larson, University of New Mexico

Introduction

It seems to many involved in the recreation and leisure services field that financial headaches are rapidly becoming the norm. Increasing costs, ever-rising insurance premiums, budget reductions, and the omnipresent specter of litigation are a few of the many challenges that the leisure services delivery professional levels must now face as an inherent part of his or her job.

Despite the difficulties that may be arrayed against the manager of a leisure services program, a number of creative and innovative remedies to the ever-present financial headaches have been developed by administrators in parks and recreation districts, governmental agencies, municipalities, and communities. In this article, a number of these possibilities are presented.

Rather than rely upon the current professional journals within the leisure services field, the intent of the authors has been to scrupulously avoid them. As an alternative, it was decided that it would be profitable to examine the popular literature from as broad an array of disciplines as possible, in order to obtain a better overview of how other individuals and businesses have been able to deal with their own particular financial troubles.

Also, within this article, the FRAM model will be discussed. It should be noted that the purpose of this model is to serve as a springboard for discussion, rather than represent the results of any formalized program of research.

Financial Resources Adaptation Model (FRAM)

As mentioned at the beginning of this paper, the authors have developed a discussion model in an effort to focus upon some of the concerns managers in leisure services delivery systems have. Each component of the model is briefly discussed below.

Components

The first component of this model is identified by the term Pressures, which in this case means the forces which have an impact upon the financial situation of an agency. These pressures may be any of a number of varying factors, such as: rising costs, deteriorating infrastructure, changes in funding, etc.

The next component is Reactions. This term is defined as the manner in which the agency or manager deals with the pressures. These reactions may be: program eliminations, hiring freezes, attrition, deferred maintenance, etc.

Together, these two components comprise the first part of the model: a pressure/reaction loop. This loop works as follows. Within an agency, financial challenges occur. In order to alleviate the pressures, the response is the reaction. This pattern continues to repeat itself indeterminately.

While the pressure/reaction loop may work (hence, its wide-spread use) and provide fairly immediate results, ultimately its effectiveness diminishes over time if it is the only tool available to the manager. Over-reliance upon a single tactic could seriously hamper the ability to respond to new or increased challenges. However, how does the manager gain the necessary perspective to adopt a new course of action?

Evaluation is the next component of the model. It represents a dramatic move away from the conventional pressure/reaction response. Such a shift is necessary if a new response pattern is to be attained. By gaining a different perspective, the manager may be able to see new ways of handling the challenges as they occur. The chief difficulty in the process of evaluation is to honestly assess the situation and accept the findings. It is only through this assessment that one can make a decision.

Upon the completion of the evaluative process, the next step is to move to a Decision Commitment, the next model component. The term commitment is intentional, for a commitment to carry out this phase of the model is essential; it is not a decision that is arrived at without taking a long, hard look at the diverse ramifications. Typically, change is uncomfortable; what the decision commitment requires is a quantum move from a "comfort zone" to a new perspective. Additionally, all stakeholders must share the commitment.

The next component of the model is termed Monitor Actions. Essentially, this means to see how the changes made as a result of the decision commitment are working. An additional aspect of the monitoring is to look ahead for new or recurring challenges. From this pro-active stance, the manager is in a better position to determine strategies that can most effectively handle the financial challenges that will arise.

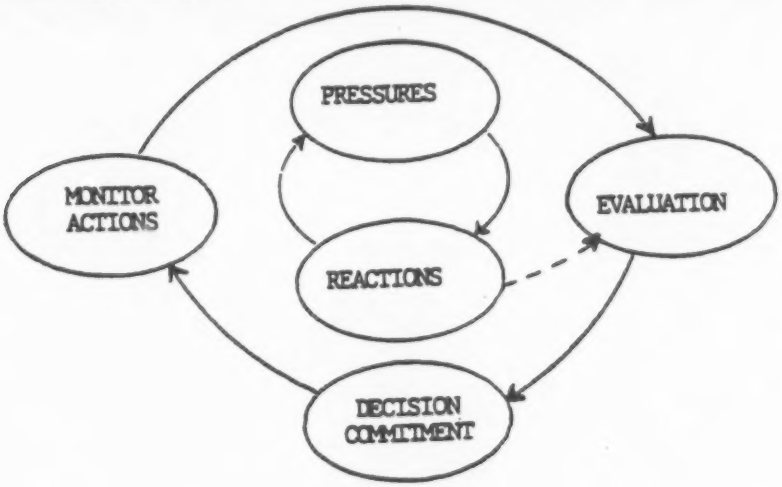


Figure 1
Financial Resources Adaptation Model

Shown here in Figure 1 is the complete FRAM model.The next few paragraphs will discuss each of the components of the model. Additionally, examples will be given to demonstrate the various components of the model.

Pressures

As briefly discussed in the overview of this article, it has been noted that there are a number of issues within this country that exert their influence upon the quantity and quality of leisure services made available by any given agency. Some of the pressures that have been made manifest include: increased taxes, a shrinking tax base, reductions in appropriations, evidences of a deteriorating infrastructure, and so forth.

To cite a number of examples, the Land Water Conservation Fund (LWCS) was established in 1965. In 1966 the funding for this agency was $125 million; by 1977, the highwater mark, the funding appropriated was $800 million. In 1990, however, the funding had been reduced to $200 million. (1)

Moreover, there has been a shift in emphasis in the types of funding, moving away from municipal and state projects, and more into federal projects. For example, though federal grants to states, cities, counties, and other jurisdictions rose from $77 Billion in 1978 to $131 Billion in 1990, the share that Washington contributed has decreased from 26.5% to 17.9% for the same time period. (2)

Changing legislation also has its impact. Consider the difficulties state and municipal governments face under recent federal legislation. While the intent of many of these laws may be praiseworthy, funding appropriations are dismally sparse. In essence, federal legislators have said, "We don't have any money to give you, but here's the new requirements you need to comply with, and are they ever expensive." Expensive to the tune of some $15 billion that the states will have to come up with. (3)

Yet another burden placed upon city managers and state officials is a shrinking tax base. Cities are carrying greater tax burdens with fewer resources to pay for them. Unlike the federal government, states and cities are generally barred from running deficits, so they end up increasing taxes and cutting back on services. In some cases, the budget slashing measures are Draconian.

Other examples could be cited, but essentially they are stating the obvious--there just isn't enough money to fund everything desirable--and the pressure is increasing. Dealing with these pressures is an arduous task.

Reaction

The typical response to these pressures may be termed <u>reaction</u>, which may include such tactics as reduction of services, increasing charges, deferring maintenance, etc. This may be likened to the putting out of a brush fire, as the response tends to be an immediate reaction or adaptation to change. In many cases, managers come to rely heavily upon this intervention because of the apparent results (i.e., quick and visible).

What may not be so apparent is that the total effectiveness of the resource management is hampered. Ultimately the effectiveness of such tactics is short-lived, because no sooner does one crisis get resolved, than another crisis is waiting in the wings.

In Toledo, for example, the response to the pressure was the recommendation to eliminate sports, increase class sizes, eliminate certain academic programs, and cut out extracurricular activities when two mill levies failed to pass. Unlike some areas facing similar challenges, Toledo school officials turned down fund-raising efforts, holding out for the mill levies.

Eventually they got their way; the mill levies passed. Despite this, they are the first to recognize that they have only bought some time. The problem isn't gone, it has only been deferred. To quote one school official: "It won't be long before we run into another financial crisis and they roll the athletic program out onto the carpet again." (4)

In Montgomery County, Maryland, parks and recreation managers faced the difficulty of being unable to afford to pay crews for maintenance. They had a significant shortfall despite cost-cutting measures such as a salary/hiring freeze and the elimination of certain jobs. They decided to meet their shortfall in funds by cutting back on special events such as festivals and concerts. In some parts of the district, they have deferred or eliminated lawn mowing, have

cancelled fall softball leagues to save on lighting costs and staff costs, cut back on hours of operation, and increased certain fees. The opening of the marina was delayed from the normal March opening to late April, and certain parks had their opening dates deferred. Even more seriously, some parks were actually closed.

The net effect is that pressures continue to mount because the managers must spend their energies putting out the brush fires. As can be seen from the model displayed in Figure 1, the typical response to pressures locks the manager into an ever-increasing pressure loop. As Alice found through the Looking Glass, "it requires one to run as fast as possible to stay in the same place."

Not only is the brush-fire reaction short-lived in its effectiveness, in many cases, it prevents the managers from seeing any alternative solutions. By continually retreating to what has historically been the "tried and true" methods of dealing with financial difficulties, managers frequently develop a myopic tendency of dealing with issues only by the brush-fire suppression technique. Buying time will only work for a while--the day of reckoning doesn't go away, and it will only recede so far.

As mentioned in the overview to Figure 1, the pressure/reaction loop is the typical response of many managers. It must be remembered that its results, though often immediate, may eventually diminish in effectiveness over time.

The challenge for managers faced with pressures is to develop some new skills in dealing with pressures. Instead of reacting, another method must be employed for long-term effectiveness.

Evaluation

As will be noted in Figure 2, the first thing that must be done is to break away from the standard response (the Reaction) to pressures and begin a process of Evaluation. That may seem difficult to do given the pressures; however, only by stepping away from the immediate scene of action will the manager gain enough perspective to obtain an adequate assessment of the situation. As an official in the GAO stated, "In the absence of rigorous evaluation, we cannot find out how well--or how poorly--a particular effort is succeeding." (5)

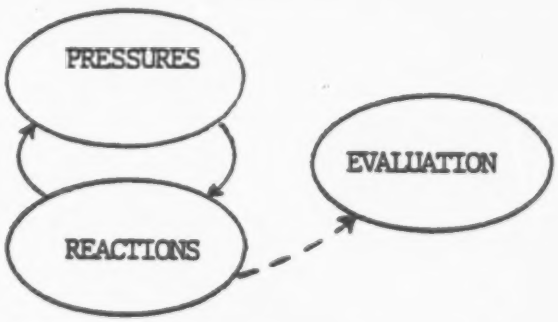


Figure 2.
Evaluative Process

It may even be necessary to throw out the old rulebooks and institutionalized practices in order to effect a change from the typical putting out the brush-fires approach, and shift into a more satisfactory, long-term solution. To do this requires breaking away from the conventional wisdom of doing things the way they've always been done (because they must) and moving into

a direction that is new and uncertain. A paradigm shift, if you will. To do that requires a willingness to explore, experience (and endure) change, and the resilience to weather the difficulties that are inherent with change.

As part of this study, the authors focused their research efforts upon adaptations that were occurring in businesses and agencies other than leisure services delivery systems. This was done by surveying the literature from a broad array of disciplines and professions to get a feel for what the pressures were that they were experiencing.

After surveying the literature, it was determined that the leisure services managers' financial problems were similar in many respects to the financial problems of the other disciplines, particularly those who were engaged in the business world. Since there exists an area of commonality with regard to financial problems between business and leisure services delivery systems, it is interesting to examine how the business managers dealt with their problems.

While not a new concept (there is nothing really new, to quote an old adage), how often is evaluation used by the manager? How often is it neglected as a management tool? Far too frequently it is relegated to a secondary role (after all else fails, or after the boss starts putting the pressure on). Nonetheless, by taking some businesses as an example, there may be some principles that can be applicable to the manager of a recreational facility.

Examples

In business, one of the primary evaluative indicators is profitability, i.e., what is the bottom line? No matter what may be the display of data, be it balance sheets, dividends paid out, earnings per share, five-year growth rates, etc., in the final analysis, businesses exist to make a profit, otherwise they don't last. Consequently, they are looking for whatever means they can employ that will increase their profitability. This becomes more important when the economy begins to falter or enters a recession. When faced with financial challenges, they respond actively and assertively, even aggressively.

As businesses begin to feel the economic pressures, they begin to look at ways to cut costs and increase profitability. Some strategies are familiar to the leisure services manager: risk management programs, organizational restructuring, etc.

One of the more important tactics they employ consists of enhancing the scope and magnitude of their marketing and public relations efforts. A few examples will suffice for this discussion.

In recessionary times, many businesses will offer discounts or value-added bonuses to their products or services. One firm capitalized on the increasing environmental concern over the loss of forests and offered customers a free tree seedling for every $20 spent. Naturally, the firm got civic groups such as the Scouts, schools, etc., involved in the project. The newspapers were involved, people planted trees, and the firm came out a winner in several areas: public relations, an increased customer database, and of course, a significant profit for the effort.

Another firm offered its customers a toll-free 800 line in order to provide a sounding board for customer concerns and complaints as well as obtaining orders. The purpose was to enhance its openness to its customers, so that their share of the market could be maintained.

A very inexpensive method of increasing sales volume is frequently used by a number of businesses. Moreover, it is a simple, yet effective method, which consists of printing up some type of invitation for an open house, reception, or some other type of affair. The customers are then able to receive a discount on

purchases if they bring in the card or invitation. Both benefit from the promotion. The customer gets the discount, the merchant gets the sale, and also increases the customer database.

As an example of how a city government solved a particular problem using evaluation and shifting their pre-conceived notions of doing things, one can look at Madison, Wisconsin. Faced with a need to operate a waste treatment facility more efficiently, they examined the possibility of purchasing a larger, more expensive facility (conventional wisdom). Instead, they evaluated their program, found out where the bottlenecks occurred, streamlined their procedures, and made their program more efficient--all without increasing the cost to the taxpayer.

Workers who were called on to help change things felt that their input was valued, that their jobs had meaning, and that they were recognized as being able to solve problems. There was a sufficient payoff in morale, productivity, and stress reduction that even labor unions want to have a commitment in their next collective bargaining agreement.

The essence of Madison's success is a commitment to treat its workers as people, not some anonymous "human resource." That same feeling extends to the general populace. Now they are valued customers, rather than faceless taxpayers. (6)

In examining the recreation field, one can look to the nation's capitol, Washington, D.C. Managers within the recreation division discerned that there was a felt need for dealing with the high unemployment rate, with its attendant ills. After considerable evaluation, the decision was made to <u>increase</u> the recreation budget, an unusual, even bold move in the face of conventional wisdom. The rationale was that the need to provide opportunities for meaningful, safe leisure time was imperative.

One of the more affluent areas of the nation, Fairfax County, Virginia, had to take a look at its financial circumstances and constraints within their parks and recreation districts. Though they have a healthy base of trust fund monies, they felt a need to augment that funding base. After they evaluated their program, they came up with a series of decisions that seem to be working for them. The result was the development of some new programs--one program raised money--and the other program saved money.

Decision Commitments

Though the evaluative process is important, evaluations are incomplete without actions. The agency must make a decision commitment after the evaluation has been completed, and ride out that commitment till sufficient time has elapsed to monitor the results.

Without the commitment of the management, it is unlikely that significant change will be effected. Though management must make the decision commitment, it is crucial that all employees provide input and commitment as well.

This is even more essential when a paradigm has shifted. For example, in the business world, even though conventional wisdom dictates cutting down on advertising in lean times, the truth of the matter is that advertising and public relations should continue throughout the transition period, and perhaps even enlarged.

It has been seen that a basically healthy company will emerge from an economic downturn with a larger market share if it maintains its advertising status. They don't suddenly quit when times are lean, because they know that advertising and public relations are investments over time. Managers in recreation and leisure services should realize the same, that having once made a decision, they should be prepared to wait for results.

As a case in point, when Fairfax County was faced with their challenge, the management made a series of decisions based upon their evaluations. They decided that a series of murder mystery theater fund-raisers would be appropriate. The response was immediate; they sold out almost immediately.

Not so immediate, but also a part of the decision commitment was to use jail inmates who had minimal sentence time remaining as part of their maintenance crews. Once committed, they had to wait over time to see how the results would be. Within a few months, they had saved over $130 thousand dollars in maintenance costs, the prisoners felt good about the deal (though not paid, they received sentence reductions), the public appreciated the services rendered, and prison officials were happy with the results. All told, the entire program has been a win-win situation.

The results of Washington D.C.'s budgetary increase were also meaningful. Officials are now planning to increase efforts in areas such as programming (late night swimming, for example) and facilities construction. Again, once they made a decision commitment, they stayed with it till sufficient time had elapsed for monitoring the results.

Monitoring Actions

The final phase of the FRAM model is monitoring actions. Essentially what this consists of is being aware of what changes there may be that can impact your agency's programs. Keeping attuned to impending legislation, locating and cultivating power brokers, exercising public relations and marketing skills are all a part of the process, and they are essential for long-term success.

Being armed with that knowledge will be very useful, for then strategic planning can occur. Rather than slipping into the old pattern of only putting out the brush fire, the effective manager may be able to make pro-active decisions. Despite challenges, a manager who effectively monitors can develop strategies that can enhance the overall program. Taking to heart the lessons of successful businesses can be profitable to recreation managers.

For example, many businesses have focused on developing a niche market. The rising popularity of memorabilia from the Sixties is a case in point. Here the business has targeted the Baby Boomers. Others, drawing inferences from the 1990 census, develop their marketing niches accordingly. For example, by 2015, Hispanics will have become the largest minority group, surpassing blacks.

An astute marketer will focus upon that changing demographic pattern, or any of a number of demographic patterns.s, the effective planner will be able to make pro-active decisions. Similarly, an astute manager should be able to draw inferences from these examples to make his or her program become a dynamic, in-step program.

Conclusion

As one examines the multitudinous array of challenges awaiting the financial manager within the leisure services field, it may seem to be overwhelming. Certainly the challenges are real, and they are very much a part of the leisure services manager's agenda; but they do not have to be the onerous burden they frequently become.

Rather than falling into the pressure loop syndrome, the effective manager can remove him/herself from the immediate pressure zone and take time to evaluate the situation, determine options, make a decision commitment and then act on it. Instead of relying only upon tactical efforts, the manager can make a quantum move into strategic efforts. Innovative programs exist, and some do rather well. There are lessons to be learned from business. These also can become a part of the total array of tools the manager has on hand.

Eventually, the manager can adapt to changing circumstances with the luxury of time to spare. It all begins with recognition that the typical response to pressure only buys time, and may in fact, contribute to the total stress factors of financial challenges. Willingness to change perspectives and adopt a pro-active stance rather than the usual reactive measures will eventually pay off when carefully evaluated and monitored. In turn, the overall effectiveness of the programs administered may be enhanced.

References

1. Mansfield, Virginia. "Conservationists' Friend Marks an Anniversary." Washington Post. 22 Mar 1991. Sec. MD. Page 9. Col. 1.

2. Henkoff, Ronald. "New Hope For Troubled Cities." Fortune. 9 Sep 1991. pp. 121-128.

3. ibid.

4. Swift, E. M. "Why Johnny Can't Play." Sports Illustrated. Sep 1991. pp. 61-72.

5. Richardson, Elliot L. "The Value of Evaluation." G-A-O Journal. Spring 1991. pp. 37-42.

6. op. cit.

The ECOEE Experience:
(or how to rub shoulders with the best for 6,000 miles)

Gordon Oles, University of New Mexico

Imagine a group of fifteen college students, ranging from juniors to graduate students; add a five-week wilderness expedition that may be in the midst of the mountains of Wyoming, the deserts of the Southwest, or perhaps in the Boundary Waters of the Great Lakes; and then place them into a crowded bus that is home for a semester, and you can begin to picture one of the most dynamic experiential learning opportunities around. This is the ECOEE program of Western Illinois University, now in its sixteenth year.

ECOEE (which stands for Environmental Conservation Outdoor Education Expedition) had its inception in 1976 under the direction of Dr. Frank D. Lupton, Jr. Working with Lupton was Paul Petzoldt, founder and former director of the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS). Together, they devised a program that would enable students to obtain valuable hands-on experience in wilderness leadership, camping, outdoor education, and natural resource interpretation. At the same time, as they travelled to various sites, they had an opportunity to meet with top professionals in the field.

At the present time, students from Western Illinois who participate in ECOEE obtain up to 18 semester credit hours through the Department of Recreation and Parks Administration. The courses the students obtain credit for include:

Travel workshop - Students have an opportunity to meet with a variety of agencies and professionals in the area of leisure services to discuss and observe on-site the trends, problems, and opportunities relevant to the leisure services delivery field.

Adventure Recreation Management - Students gain the perspective to critically evaluate a variety of adventure recreation ITF environments, addressing the concerns of staff selection, liability, adventure trip management, logistics, and program safety.

Outdoor Education - Students observe a variety of outdoor and/or environmental education facilities and settings and gain an in-depth overview of the manner in which these types of program are administered. Additionally, they gain practical experience in providing outdoor educational experiences by planning and implementing an outdoor education program for elementary school students.

Principles of Camping - This course provides the students with an opportunity to develop and enhance skills applicable to camping education and leadership.

Interpretation of Cultural/Environmental Resources - Students develop a basic understanding of the interpretation of natural, cultural, and environmental resources. Additionally, they gain experience in developing and disseminating an interpretive program.

Wilderness Leadership - This course instructs the student in the skills of teaching others to use the environment with minimal impact, to safely lead others in the wilderness, and to consistently exercise sound judgment in a variety of environments and conditions.

Key Program Components

In examining what has made ECOEE successful, it would appear that they have hit upon a number of elements that provide a memorable learning experience.

Those who would desire to implement a similar program might wish to implement some of these.

Expedition

First of all, the expedition is planned by the students themselves. They figure out where they wish to go, what will be the logistical requirements, what are the costs entailed, how will the costs be met--in short--everything that they will need to do in order to get the expedition off and running. This is accomplished during the spring semester immediately before the fall expedition.

That the students have planned the expedition themselves is crucial--they have a greater stake in what will occur, what programs will be included in their itinerary, etc. They alone are responsible for the success of the program.

A second observation about the expedition is that the students come into this program knowing that it will be a rigorous learning experience. They knowingly accept the difficulties and challenges as an integral part of the program. Indeed, for many of them, this seems to be a primary attraction at first--the idea of being physically challenged. Without that element of challenge (risk, if you will), it does not appear that there would be as much attraction.

A third component of the expedition is that of skills acquisition. Due to the duration and intensity of the course, students gain a broad array of experiences that help to train them to safely lead others in the wilderness. One central aspect of ECOEE's program is the program's affiliation with the Wilderness Education Association. Students have the opportunity to gain the skills necessary for certification from this agency.

Professional Exposure

Another key component of ECOEE's success seems to lie in the fact that all of the students involved in the program receive considerable exposure to numerous professionals in the leisure services delivery field. During the course of the semester, they may meet with top officials of governmental agencies, such as the superintendent of Yellowstone National Park, with major officials of municipal recreation districts, or with some of the key figures in the recreation/leisure movement (For example, one ECOEE group spent an afternoon visiting with Dr. Rey Carlson, an early outdoor education/camping advocate). At another time, they might spend the day at one of the major universities known for its efforts in the outdoor educational movement, meeting with some of the faculty in a lively conversation about the relevant issues.

Active Experience

If nothing else is noteworthy about ECOEE, the opportunity to gain invaluable experience is. Students not only visit major sites, but they become active participants. For example, they may spend a week at George Williams College learning about outdoor education, both as students and then as leaders. From a visit to Southern Illinois' Touch of Nature Program, they may gain insight into the mechanics of setting up and administering an adventure ropes course. Additionally, they may be involved in a search and rescue training exercise, or even an actual search party.

When one considers the number of sites visited and the types of activities they engage in, it might seem that the students spend more time underground and above the ground than they do on the ground! There is no lack of experiential learning.

Academic Focus

Despite some notions of the uninformed, it should be noted that the students are involved in an academically rigorous program. In addition to the usual course work regimen, the students are also involved in professional activities. For example, they may just be getting into town after having completed the expedition phase of the program; yet they may have only enough time to clean up, and then put together the presentation that is due at a conference the next day 300 miles away. They may have to put on a workshop the week after. At times, it seems that adequate sleep is a far-off memory, but eventually, they live through it.

Conclusion

By the time the semester draws to a close, fifteen students have been changed. Enduring friendships have been formed, professional networks have been strengthened, and students have gained an immeasurable wealth of information, experience, and insight into what may well be one of the most significant things they will ever do in their lives. Though they may be at a loss to explain it adequately to their friends and associates, the ECOEE experience will always remain a warm and vibrant memory to those who have taken the opportunity to explore and complete it.

Graduate Placement! Fact or Fiction?

Burton Olsen and Tom Hansen
Brigham Young University

A survey was conducted of Brigham Young University graduates from 1985-1990, a six year period. The purpose of the survey was: (1) identify how long after graduation students found employment, (2) find where graduates were employed, (3) discover how many alumni were still in the field of recreation, and (4) analyse salaries at the beginning of employment compared to salaries after five years. The researchers also analysed the differences existing between B.A. & M.A. and male and female students.

Of the 318 surveys mailed, 212 graduates responded, a 67 percent return. Analyses of the returns found that there were 48.1 percent males and 51.9 percent females; 62.9 had B. S. degrees and 37.1 percent had M.A. degrees. The breakdown also discovered that students graduated from the following areas of emphases: therapy, 24.9 percent; administration, 46.3 percent; outdoor recreation, 5.9 percent; community education, 6.3 percent; youth leadership, 15.1 percent; and 1.5 percent were unidentified.

Findings

Some findings of this study are reported below.

After graduating from BYU, 73.7 percent of the students were employed, 13.4 percent were unemployed, 8.1 percent returned to school, and 4.8 percent of the students went into the military, served L.D.S. missions, became homemakers, etc. Of the students that were employed 70.3 percent of the graduates found jobs within the field of recreation. Obviously 29.7 percent found their first job outside the area of recreation or youth leadership. After graduation, 84.42 percent of the M.A. graduates were employed. Those with a B.S. degree seem to have had a little harder time getting their first permanent job. There were 66.92 percent of the B.S. graduates employed after graduation. Results showed that 14.62 percent of the B.S. graduates and 11.69 percent of the M.A. graduates were unemployed.

Findings showed that 70.59 percent of our M.A. students as compared to 58.63 percent of our B.S. students found their internship "definitely very helpful", "very helpful", or "helpful." The internship and computer classes were identified more than any other classes that "were most helpful in preparing you to search for and find a job". There were 70.31 percent of the graduating students found a job connected to a prior summer or internship experience. The finance and budgeting classes were also identified as helpful in acquiring a job. Therapy classes were also listed as helpful.

When looking for employment, students need to take more self action. Their university adviser and department can help some, but don't expect much help from the college, specially from BYU Placement Center. A question was asked "On a scale of 1-5, 1 being the lowest, how were the following helpful in your search for employment?" The following mean averages were recorded: "Other" 3.396; "Adviser" 2.747; "Department" 2.255; "College" 1.741; and "BYU Placement Center" 1.314.

The mean average salary of the alumni is $20,890. The mean average of B.S. students is $15,360 and M.A. students is $24,000. The average salary of those M.A. students who have been out of school for six years is over $30,000 annually. The average salary for B.S. students who have been out in the field for over five years is $20,390.

In other words, a student with a B.S. can expect to start out at $15,000 or more, an M.A. student, $20,800 or more. After five years B.S. students can

expect an increase of $5,000, while M.A. students can expect an increase of $10,000.

Of the 135 responding people who were first employed in the recreation field, 29.1 percent have gone on to find work outside the recreation field, 6.7 percent became homemakers, and 3.7 percent went on for further education.

Analyses of the current respondents were as follows: 35.4 percent of all graduates had jobs outside the recreation field; 48.8 percent were currently working in the recreation and youth leadership field; 11 percent were "Other" (homemakers, in the military, etc.); and 4.8 percent were going to school.

It was interesting to compare where BYU students were currently employed. Listed below is the comparison.

Field	Male	Female	Total
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Therapeutic Recreation	12.87	25.94	19.62
Youth Leadership	7.92	5.58	6.7
Public Recreation	.99	1.87	1.44
Private Recreation	00.00	.94	.48
Recreation Education	7.92	2.79	5.26
Other Recreation Fields	20.79	10.19	15.31
Non recreation fields	43.57	27.79	35.41
Other (homemaker, etc.)	00.00	21.2	11.0
Student	5.94	3.7	4.78
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

There were twice as many females (25.94 percent) in the therapy area as males, (12.87 percent). The males were more dominant in recreation education, 7.92 percent verses 2.79 percent for the females. Unfortunately, there are not many students in the fields of youth leadership, public recreation, private recreation, or recreation education.

Listed below is a salary chart based on male and female comparisons.

Salary	Male	Female	Total
	Percent	Percent	Percent
$0-$9,999	7.29	11.24	9.19
$10,000-14,999	3.12	15.73	9.19
$15,000-19,999	12.5	21.35	16.76
$20,000-24,999	23.96	33.71	28.65
$25,000-29,999	22.92	7.87	15.68
$30,000-34,999	14.58	6.74	10.81
$35,000-39,999	6.25	1.12	3.78
$40,000-44,999	0.00	1.12	.54
$45,000-49,999	5.21	0.0	2.7
$50,000 and over	4.17	1.12	2.7
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Males are making an average of $20,460, whereas females are making less, $15,280. There are many females who are working in the low range of the salary

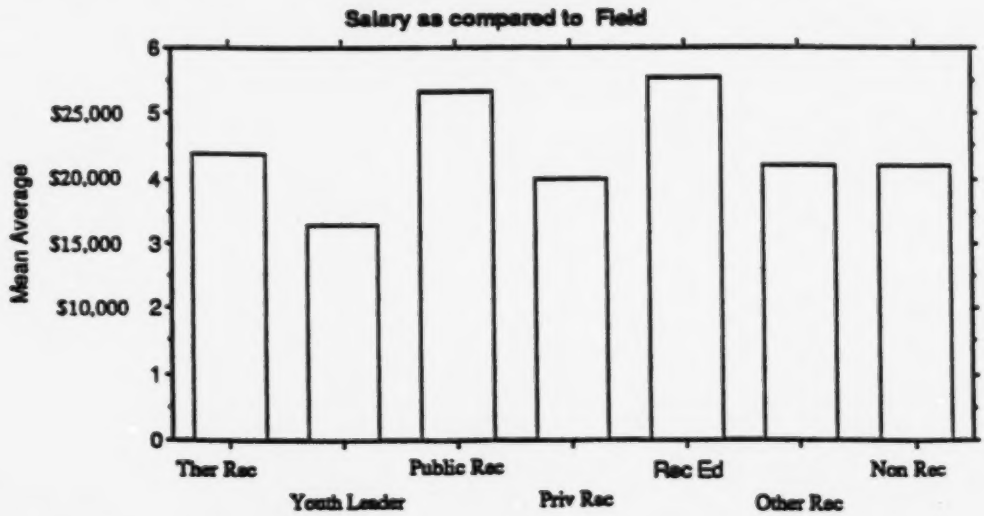
scale. Perhaps the 11.24 percent of females and 7.29 percent of the males in the $0-9,999 are more than likely, part-time.

Analyses of the graduates were made as it pertained to salary based on the field area.

	$0-	$10--	$15--	$20--	$25--	$30--	$35--	$40--	$45--	$50+	Total	
Therapeut...	1.10%	0.55%	3.85%	9.34%	1.65%	2.75%	1.10%	0.00%	0.55%	0.55%	21.43%
Youth Lea...	0.55%	0.55%	3.30%	2.75%	0.55%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	7.69
Public Rec	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.55%	0.55%	0.00%	0.55%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1.65%
Private Rec	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.55%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.55%
Rec Educa...	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1.65%	1.10%	1.10%	0.55%	0.00%	0.55%	0.00%	4.95%
Other Rec	0.55%	3.30%	3.85%	3.30%	3.85%	1.10%	0.00%	0.00%	0.55%	1.10%	17.58%
Non Recre...	3.85%	4.40%	4.95%	9.34%	7.69%	4.40%	1.65%	0.00%	1.10%	1.10%	38.46%
Home Mak...	1.65%	0.55%	0.55%	1.65%	0.00%	0.55%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.95%
Student	1.65%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1.10%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.75%
Totals:	9.34%	9.34%	16.48%	29.12%	15.38%	10.99%	3.85%	0.00%	2.75%	2.75%	100.00%

Note: There were a few people who did not respond to this question; so percentages listed here are different that those identified in the table where "BSU students were currently employed."

An average of each field was made. Here are the results:



Note that students in the therapeutic recreation field are averaging about $22,000, youth leadership students are averaging about $16,000, public recreation above $25,000, recreation education about $27,000, other recreation jobs above $20,000, and non recreation jobs were averaging just above $20,000.

Recommendations:

1. If at all possible, students should go on for an M.A. degree before quitting their schooling. Salary will be more financially rewarding. When

beginning a career, the students that had their master's degree had a greater chance of landing a job shortly after graduation.

2. If one wants employment soon after graduation in recreation, find a meaningful internship or job in the field. Chances are greatly enhanced. Also consider finding a summer or part-time job in the field of recreation. Two out of three job possibilities will be connected to your summer, part-time job, or internship experience.

3. Having a computer class and/or having a strong background in using a computer will also help your employment opportunities. Finance and budgeting classes will also be very helpful in job acquisition.

4. Job opportunities are more plentiful in therapeutic recreation than any other single field.

5. If you like the field of recreation, you should stay. Interestingly enough, our statistics show that the average salary is better in the field than leaving the profession.

6. When looking for employment, don't spend much time working with the university placement or the college, but do contact your adviser and department. Be ready to spend much time and energy yourself.

7. Recreation seems to be very attractive for females as part-time work.

8. You should go on for your M.S. degree if you have any inclination to do so. Access to better job opportunities and higher salaries are found at the M. A. level.

9. Why are graduates moving outside the recreation field? The recreation field needs to do to hold on to their graduates.

10. Recreation teachers should structure their classes to focus more on job related issues and courses. Instructors should better help students apply book-learned information.

Leisure, Envy, Deviance
The Negative Sanction and Discord

James C. Peterson, Cameron University

In asking if leisure can be fruitfully studied as an independent variable, we formulate the following hypothesis to be the subject of this development of our study: Where leisure (we follow Pieper, 1952; Eliade, 1963; and Campbell, 1968, to delimit and operationalize the concept leisure) is minimal, envy (the invidious distinction) increases; where there is envy deviance frequency rises; with the rise of deviance there will be commensurate negative sanctions; and sanctions perceived as negative promote discord. By implication, then, where leisure quality and influence are high, there will be less deviance and, therefore, minimal negative sanctioning.

Leisure

The presence of leisure in a casual posture may be summed-up by the following: Leisure, as a cultural disposition round which values may be oriented, becomes dynamic only when it is transferred from the abstract to an interacting system of role expectations and performances. When performances are in accord with cultural expectations that are also internalised as needs in the personality system, there is accord among the relevant actors.

The adaptation of leisure as, underscored leisure, for at least the present purposes, represents a single concept which sums up three conceptual dimensions: (1) "time" that is uncommitted to work, and, therefore, discretionary; (2) "myth" as the conceptual dimension that tells how things are oriented from the beginning, and, thereby, how there is order from primordial to present time; and (3) "ritual" as the dramatic rehearsal of the integrating accounts of heroics which return the performers and the witnesses to that unordinary time, that time which is sacred and full of harmony. Thus, "time," "myth," and "ritual" constitute our underscored concept and independent variable leisure.

Leisure is a specific aspect of a specific dimension of culture. The dimension is values and the aspect is appreciative, expressive, contemplative, and deliberative. As such, leisure, when valued by an actor or actors, becomes a goal toward which one may work, or provide for its eventuality. It is a motivational orientation and also a special time ambience. When thus construed and culturally valued, leisure becomes a reward or it is rewarding, it is a positive sanction which is possessed in culture, transferred through the processes of socialization/institutionalization into the personality of a given actor and there becoming a need. Such an actor will conform to patterns of behavioral expectations that will secure and perpetuate leisure for himself. As a reward, i.e., as a positive sanction, leisure is not only to have but also to be and to do; and the having, the being, and the doing of leisure both attains and maintains it. Therefore, in a psycho-socio-cultural system possessed of leisure, there will be special time, myth and ritual:

> He who recites or performs the origin myth is thereby steeped in the sacred atmosphere in which these events took place. The mythical time of origins is "strong" time because it was transfigured by the active, creative presence of the Supernatural Beings. By reciting the myths one reconstitutes that fabulous time and hence in some sort becomes "contemporary" with the events described, one is in the presence of the Gods or Heroes. As a summary formula we might say that by "living" the myths one emerges from profane, chronological time and enters a time that is of a different quality, a "sacred" Time at once primordial and indefinitely recoverable. (Eliade, 1963, p. 18)

As a condition which may wax and wane (indefinitely recoverable), the presence or absence of leisure will thus wax and wane in whatever influence it may promote. If leisure is not in a specific culture, its possession will be a reward to which actors will aspire; if leisure is not in a specific culture, certainly it will not be sought after. Withal, leisure has a social function, which, we hypothesize, its presence promotes positive consequences and its absence permits negative consequences within any society. As studying the negative sanction is a chief concern for us, we will more fully take up the task after further discussion of the relevance of leisure.

We should not lay aside our explications of our concept leisure before noting some of our indebtedness to the extraordinary work of Joseph Pieper (1952). Most of our own dictionaries do not properly enlighten us concerning the word leisure. Pick up a nearby Webster lexicon and one may discover that the etymology following the entry "leisure" seems to leave out the very aspect of the word which most concerns us. What is seen is simply the middle English, the French, and a very biased abridgment of the Latin. We presume that such as the present is, it is the proper representation of lexical progress and the corollary cultural-linguistic change. With that we would not wish to quarrel, even if our speculation were accurate.

However, upon finding the word "school" in the same dictionary, the etymological notation places us squarely upon Pieper and our following of his lead regarding leisure. One may compare with a dictionary, if one wishes, but we shall only quote from Pieper for our indebtedness:

> For leisure in Greek is skole, and in Latin scola, the English 'school'. The word used to designate the place where we educate and teach is derived from a word which means 'leisure'. 'School' does not, properly speaking, mean school, but leisure (1952, p. 26).

Even if we were competent for historical, linguistic, or even philosophical exposition, we should not wish to follow such proclivities. Our leisure activity here is to discover to what extent, if any, is the causal energy of our concept leisure in reference to social sanctioning, most particularly the negative sanction.

We presume that the absence of leisure permits other social forces, viz., whatever is deviance or disobedience, to stimulate negative sanctions. While both positive and negative sanctions have the potential to stimulate envy by virtue of their distinguishing between at least two actors, or groups of actors, any response to action that is interpreted by actor as punishment will more often promote a disposition, in that actor, to envy than would a perceived reward (when the guy next to you gets hit with the arrow, he has a different experience--if he survives, he is envious). But that is not all: in the case of non-aleatory, socially contrived punishment that creates some disposition to envy, such a disposition, if self-acknowledged, will contribute to an erosion of any positive self assessment, which, in turn, promotes a diminution of the actor's motivation to conform to the norms, or society that generated his sense of envy. If the actor is aware of the presence of, and is interacting with, other actors of similar subjectively defined deprivations (e.g., a deviant peer group), he will be all the more inclined to alter his motivational energy toward conforming to what was formerly defined as deviance (Kaplan and Johnson, 1991), and what the normative, i.e., parental world yet defines to be deviant. But now the actor's motivational energy is redirected toward being deviant; thus behaving, the actor elicits further negative sanctioning responses which can only promote more deviance and altogether likely be developing discord.

Concerning Un-leisure, the Negative That is Work

Let there be no mistaking the central issue herein that we intend should be developing. We are attempting to explore social, institutional control. We are trying to argue well that the negative sanction neither deters deviance nor stimulates motivation to conform to the conventional expectations that prompted the negative-sanction response to an actor's deviance. Before concluding our over-all inquiry with some findings of Kaplan and Johnson's recently reported study (1991), and some experts from a resentment study (Nordstrum, et al, 1967), we should return to Pieper (1952) and some further relevant points in the early development of that work which shows leisure to be the basis of culture.

Pieper reports that the early Greeks' concept of leisure, as noted herein above, has now "become unrecognisable in the world of planned diligence and 'total labor'; and in order to gain a clear notion of leisure we must begin by setting aside the prejudice--our prejudice--that comes from over-valuing the sphere of work" (1952, p. 26).

In the same place, he tells us that Weber "quotes the saying, that 'one does not work to live; one lives to work', which nowadays no one has much difficulty in understanding: it expresses the current opinion" (1952, p. 26). Pieper's next sentence we emphasize, for we shall use it further in asserting our present tendency to see the negative sanction as unnatural in the promotion of accord in society, and ineffective in stimulating motive to conform to the positive expectations of the establishment that responded to actor's deviance with negative sanctioning. Now the emphasis: "We even find some difficulty in grasping that it reverses the order of things and stands them on their head" Then Pieper asks, "But what ought we to say to the opposite view that 'we work in order to have leisure'?" To us contemporaries, this may seem immoral and striking at all that is fundamentally sound in society. Pieper assures us, and we might almost be reassured, that the maxim is a quote from the workaholic Aristotle, and that, of course, "gives it all the more weight." But Pieper continues a discomfiting challenge to our biases:

> Literally, the Greek says 'we are unleisurely in order to have leisure.' 'To be unleisurely'--that is the word the Greeks used not only for the daily toil and moil of life, but for ordinary everyday work. Greek only has the negative, a-scolia, just as Latin has neg-otium (pp. 26-27).

Here now, we suggest that we have presented good evidence that merits presenting a hypothesis that includes the directive to disprove the positive association, i.e., no variance from each other, of the negative sanction and actor's motive to conform to the conventional expectations of the social source of the sanction.

Moreover, the identification of leisure as comprising "time" that is extraordinary, even sacred; "myths" of cultural heroism that are believed ("The standard path of the mythological adventure of the hero is a magnification of the formula represented in the rites of passage: separation--initiation--return: which might be named the nuclear unit of the monomyth, (Campbell, 1968, p. 30).); and "ritual," the performance of, and the participation in which, amount to very profound, positive, social sanctioning, such identification of leisure, provides a concept of causation that can explain why the negative sanction is socially disintegrating. In addition, paradigms for socially integrating recreations, therapies, and interventions can be derived from our hypothesis. Finally, and perhaps most importantly, a favorable bias toward the positive value of the negative sanction is called into question, if not discredited.

Empirical Evidence: A Few Excerpts from Two Studies

As quoted on a flyleaf in Nordstrom's, et al study (1967), the wisdom of Thackeray reminds us of that which another has said, that we might all be encouraged to go to our houses and shut our mouths in everlasting silence until we had learned something. Of course, we only quote wisdom; we do not often practice it. Just the same, Nordstrum and colleagues bid us parents, teachers, doctors-lawyers-entrepreneurs, and scholars, who essay to do all the good we can, to consider the probability that "The wicked are wicked, to doubt, and they go astray and they fall, and they come by their deserts; but who can tell the mischief which the very virtuous do?" Thus is their study of resentment introduced. Their object in that quoting is to observe, at the outset, that they will report to us something that is commonplace, though hidden. That is why we report here their quote from Thackeray. We wish to call attention to something which we give and receive in some abundance every day. That something is negative experience. In their study, Nordstrom and colleagues present measures of the malevolent influence of resentment on the environments of nine secondary, which influence leaves students the unwitting champions of mediocrity and unfit for productive life.

The authors begin their report with a story of a college student commenting on why he changed his major from engineering to philosophy. The student reported that in high school "he had found science and mathematics to be the only subjects that held his interest" (p. 3). The student said that in all the others of his high school subjects one was moved down to a level of mediocrity with no chance to do any more. The introductory chapter goes on to describe a dismal condition of unimaginative success for students who continued in science from high school through graduation from college, who developed a sense of non-critical responsibility to hard work for its own sake. The concept ressentiment is defined as contrasting with resentment, telling their readers that "ressentiment is less completely conscious than ordinary resentment and less focused on the particular experiences that are its actual causes, and it is more of a social than a psychological phenomenon. In contrast to conventional resentment, ressentiment is usually rationalized, covert, diffuse, and largely unconscious...ressentiment is a kind of free-floating ill temper. Scheler characterizes ressentiment as 'a lasting mental attitude, caused by the systematic repression of certain emotions and affects which, as such, are normal components of human nature.' 'Their repression,' he goes on to say, 'leads to the constant tendency to indulge in certain kind of value delusions and corresponding value judgements'; the 'emotions and affects primarily concerned are revenge, hatred, malice, envy, the impulse to detract, and spite'" (p. 8).

The authors discuss ressentiment in both teachers and in students. The ressentiment teacher is the ill-trained, or the ill-prepared, or the burned out, or all of the above. In social studies, such a teacher always has the upper and punishing hand because in social studies there are not any right answers to creative inquiry, except the unpredictable and ambiguous and defensive responses from the teacher; in mathematics, the superior student can be often demonstrably deriving the right answer, and, therefore, feel at least good enough about himself. We read further from the closing of the introductory chapter: "It is the job of the humanities and the social sciences to get to the root of human experience, which at best means hewing austere beauty out of some very ugly blocks in such a way that their real character is revealed. This is just what ressentiment cannot tolerate. And this is what makes both the humanities and social studies so dangerous in the classroom, for to teach them well is to inquire directly into the essence of human experience" (p. 10). And finally, we quote from our authors' preamble with more specific relevance to our own hypothesis: "Here we seek to determine whether there might be an unrecognized process by which schools actually do something <u>to</u> students, and in the doing, seriously interfere with the development of what used to be called a strong and forceful character." They, of course suspect ressentiment. "In our preliminary judgement ressentiment operated to stifle enthusiasm, to undermine fortitude, and

to discourage the development of self-mastery; and to the degree that this is true we saw ressentiment as insidious when endured, difficult to fight, and stultifying in its consequences. We also thought that this process was not only unrecognised, but, in a formal sense, unintended" (pp. 10-11).

For our present purposes, there is no need to cite and quote further from the ressentiment study. It is enough to report that the research yielded abundant evidence of the presence and negative consequences of ressentiment. Our own hypothesis is lent support from the ressentiment study in observing that ressentiment is essentially the opposite phenomena of our concept leisure. That is, we have suggested that the relative absence of leisure would lead to envy. Nordstrom and colleagues found envy present in ressentiment. They also found varieties of deviance from school rules, for example, and they found the schools permeated with negative sanctions, expressed, implied, and applied. And, of course, ressentiment, by definition, presupposes discord, and the ressentiment study revealed discord in abundance in the insecure conformity and deviance of students, and in the negative assertiveness of ill prepared, and thereby, vulnerable and insecure teachers.

Negative Social Sanctions and Juvenile Delinquency

Kaplan and Johnson define social sanction. Since their definition is as we also should operationally define sanction for inclusion in our hypothesis, we quote from their sociologically putative definition:

> Social sanctions are reactions by others to the real or imagined behavior of an individual. The sanctions serve as rewards or punishments for the behavior either by the intention of the others or the perception of the individual. The concept has been presented in sociological contexts as potentially powerful for understanding the processes underlying the continuation or escalation of deviant behavior. (1991, p.99)

Additionally, Kaplan and Johnson's central statement of their theory, plus the empirical support which their theory construct receives in their study bids us to quote again from the beginning sections of their paper:

> The personal and social responses that are influenced by negative social sanctions are interpreted as reflecting or influencing the deviant actor's (1) loss of motivation to conform to, and acquisition of motivation to deviate from, conventional norms, (2) association with deviant peers, and (3) reevaluation of deviant identities and behaviors. These three outcomes in turn have direct or indirect influences on the continuity or escalation of deviant behavior (1991, p.100).

The data subject of Kaplan and Johnson's study is a sample taken of students in 36 junior high schools in Houston. Their survey was conducted in 1971, 1972, and 1973 that included usable questionnaires responded to by more than 7500 students.

We refer the interested reader to the excellently conceived model of the study's central concepts, the language of which we have quoted above. The variables are diagramed beginning with deviance and showing paths to negative sanctions, self-rejection, disposition to deviance, deviant peer associations, and altogether giving rise again to deviance. All is near identical, conceptually, to our hypothesis save in the study Kaplan and Johnson represent the concepts as variables with correlation measures which do not permit them to say that there is an inverse relationship between negative social sanctions and deviance. We take that as evidence to suggest there is likely some empirical support for our theoretical claims (see Kaplan and Johnson, pp. 105, 114, and

115). Their study notes, in contradistinction to their own hypotheses and findings, that "A frequently proposed explanation for deviant behavior is the deterrence hypothesis 'whereby individuals are coerced, threatened, and sanctioned into conformity." Further, their claim, in relevant part, reads, "The expectation persists in the literature despite the absence of firm and consistent empirical support" (p.118).

Our hypothesis would predict essentially the same findings that the Kaplan and Johnson study found regarding the function negative social sanctions, that they "are observed to have direct and indirect positive effects on later Deviance. These are contrary to expectations from the deterrence perspective, which would have led to the prediction of an inverse relationship between Negative Social Sanctions and later Deviance" (p.119).

Kaplan and Johnson conclude their work noting some of its limitations: "Yet it remains to determine what other factors such as the persistence of motives for initial deviant behavior are operative." They continue, however, "After taking into account the mediating effects of Negative Social Sanctions in response to early Deviance on later Deviance, direct and other indirect effects" (p.120). Our hypothesis would direct us to add that there would continue the eternal round of deviance responded to with negative sanction responded to with deviance responded to with negative sanctions, and so on, until some kind of creditable ritual dramatization of acceptable heroics are available for participation therein across the experience of actor's socialization.

Leisure is the key concept. Where there is leisure there will be minimal, or no, need for negative social sanctions. This is true by definition, if not confirmed empirically. Withal, however, we can, with some confidence, conclude that legitimate participation with regularity, in the ritual dramatization of conventional expectations constitutes the most consistent positive, formal, external sanction, providing the greatest potential for actor's internalizing as a culture-derived personality disposition of need.

References

Campbell, J. (1968). The Hero With a Thousand Faces.

Eliade, M. (1963). Myth and reality. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Kaplan, H. & R. Johnson, (1991). "Negative social sanctions and juvenile delinquency: effects of labeling in a model of deviant behavior." Social Science Quarterly. 72, No. 1, 98-122.

Nordstrom, C., E. Friedenberg& H. Gold, (1967). Society's Children: A Study of Ressentiment in the Secondary School. New York, NY: Random House.

Pieper, J. (1952). Leisure: The Basis of Culture. New York, NY: Pantheon Books, Inc.

Designing and Administering an Effective Performance Appraisal Instrument

Michael Phelan, West Georgia College

Introduction

The importance of personnel management has been recognized in park and recreation management in recent years. Kraus and Curtis (1986) state that "personnel management is a key factor in the success of all types of organizations; it is essential in maintaining a smoothly functioning, productive enterprise." Performance appraisal is one of the functions of a leisure service manager that has traditionally fallen under the realm of personnel management. A properly constructed and administered performance appraisal instrument aids the leisure service manager in administering agency policy. By measuring and appraising an employee's performance, the manager has systematic means for making personnel decisions. While this personnel technique is strongly recommended and is important to an agency's efficiency, developing an effective performance appraisal program is a most difficult area for organizations (McMillan & Doyle, 1980).

The purpose of this article is to examine the importance of following established procedures for developing performance appraisal measures. A background to performance appraisal will be first presented by defining performance appraisal, identifying the objectives of performance appraisal and describing appraisal concepts and functions. The commonly used performance appraisal techniques also will be reviewed. A strategy will be presented at the conclusion for managers to follow to develop an effective performance appraisal instrument. (Note: There are many terms synonymous with performance appraisal that are used interchangeably in the literature. Some of these terms are performance evaluation, performance review, personnel rating, merit rating, employee appraisal, and employee evaluation. For this article, the term performance appraisal will be used.)

Performance Appraisal Defined

Ivancevich and Glueck (1989) define performance appraisal as "The personnel/human resources management activity that is used to determine the extent to which an employee is performing the job effectively." A similar definition is offered by Cascio (1987): "Performance appraisal is the systematic description of individual job-relevant strengths and weaknesses." Both definitions identify performance appraisal either indirectly or directly as a management function that determines an employee's effectiveness. While both contain the essential reasoning for performing performance appraisals--to appraise an employee's performance--Schuler (1981) offers this more complete definition of performance appraisal:

Performance appraisal is a formal structured system of measuring and evaluating an employee's job-related behavior and outcomes to discover how and why the employee is presently performing on the job and how the employee can perform more effectively in the future so that the employee, the organization, and society all benefit.

The attractiveness of this definition is that it identifies performance appraisal as (1) a formal structured system, (2) the focus is on the hows and whys of job-related behaviors, (3) what an employee can do to improve job-related performance and (4) the desired outcome is specified.

Objectives of Performance Appraisal

As stated in the first two definitions, the essential purpose for conducting performance appraisals is to evaluate or appraise an employee's performance. There are several specific objectives, each with a different

outcome, why an agency should be using performance appraisals. For an agency to use a performance appraisal instrument effectively as a means of improving overall operations, the personnel officer or designated administrator of that agency must decide the objective for the performance appraisal instrument. McMillan and Doyle (1980) suggest that the first step in developing an effective performance appraisal is to define the purpose for, or use of, the performance appraisal.

Klingner and Nalbandian (1985) identify four major purposes of performance appraisals: (1) to communicate management goals and objectives to employees, (2) to motivate employees to improve their performance, (3) to distribute organizational rewards such as salary increases equitably, and (4) to conduct personnel management research. Ivancevich and Glueck (1989) regard eight purposes or objectives of performance appraisal: developmental, reward, motivational, legal, personnel and employment planning, compensation, communication and research. In a similar listing of objectives, Culkin and Kirsch (1986) identify six specific objectives of performance appraisal.

1. Provide feedback to the employee on strengths and weaknesses.

2. Establish the relative value of the employee's contribution to the organization for determining appropriate compensation.

3. Determine specific training and development needs for each employee.

4. Identify potential employees for future promotions.

5. Enhance communication between employees and management.

6. Improve understanding of personal goals and career concerns of employees.

Several objectives listed can be combined on the same performance appraisal. For example, despite the objective of a performance appraisal, management should be interested in enhancing communication with employees. Several of these objectives, however, are specific and a specific performance appraisal instrument must be used to accomplish each individual objective. For example, if an employee is being appraised to decide training and development needs, then it would be unwise to combine this appraisal with one trying to determine compensation. Understanding appraisal concepts and the functions of performance appraisal in the following section will help the agency manager responsible for developing a performance appraisal instrument in identifying the objectives for which the instrument will be used.

Appraisal Concepts and Functions

Rabin (1985) has noted that "personnel appraisal" is a term that is generic and in reality encompasses three operational concepts: performance appraisal, career appraisals and productivity appraisals. The first operational concept, performance appraisal, focuses on actual performance within the work environment. This appraisal is limited to actual historic performance in a specified time and does not involve any speculation. The second concept, career appraisal, identifies past performance of employees for determining future growth and potential within the organization. While agreeing to its principles, this form of appraisal has aroused concern with labor organizations. Labor unions favor identifying employees for promotions and realize that to secure a promotion, the performance history of an employee needs to be documented. The unions, which recognize the need to identify potential employees for managerial training, are concerned that the documentation obtained by management for future career development could be used as the basis of reductions in the work force or retention decisions, which of course is contrary to its original purpose.

The last concept, productivity appraisals, is the most straightforward of the three. This type of evaluation is simply based on the amount of work completed and, because of the nature of this type of appraisal, is only suited for those types of productivity that can be measured and recorded. Because this type of appraisal measures only objective criteria, it does not measure an employee's knowledge, skills and abilities.

Rabin (1985) and Klingner and Nalbandian (1985), among others, identify two primary functions of personnel appraisals: administrative and behavioral. Personnel appraisals are administrative in function when they are used to support other personnel decisions such as promotions, recognition, rewards, transfers, demotions, warnings, or discharges. An example of an administrative function of an appraisal is when a satisfactory appraisal is used as a justification in retaining an employee.

The second function of personnel appraisals is behavioral and is therefore designed to improve employee performance, but for this reason could present problems for the manager. Since appraisals are linked to organizational rewards, employees may be trained in role perceptions and behaviors that are not necessarily in total harmony with the expectations of the organization. An employee may be "trained" to please the manager in appearance and not always in performance. In addition to this problem, an employee who is given the impression that superior performance will not be rewarded in the organization will most likely leave the organization or at least adjust his output to a minimally acceptable level.

While most writers agree in the value of performance appraisals, some authors such as Greg and Weil (1983) have called for the abolition of personnel appraisals altogether, while a more tempered Gellerman (1973) only sees a partial value to them. To quote Gellerman:

At any given moment, the overwhelming majority of employees are in no particular need of administrative attention. They are not about to be promoted, recognized, rewarded, transferred, demoted, warned, or fired. Except for scheduled pay reviews, they are not about to receive a pay increase either. Thus, for most people most of the time, the administrative goals and methods of performance appraisal can simply be dispensed with because the only realistic purposes are behavioral.

The problem with this line of thinking is readily apparent. If a personnel manager has not maintained accurate records, then, when faced with an administrative decision, the decision can become capricious in nature and possibly open the organization to litigation. Rabin (1985) and Morley (1986) have also identified a problem with the execution of the appraisal system. Their objections are addressed at standard, yearly appraisals. They feel that to be effective behaviorally, appraisals should be administered at least weekly, if not daily, as opposed to yearly. The yearly appraisal only seems to serve the purpose of budget considerations.

Once the objectives, functions and purposes of performance appraisal are understood, a manager must decide on an appropriate appraisal technique to evaluate subordinates. The next section will discuss the currently popular performance appraisal techniques and address the issue of administration of performance appraisals.

Appraisal Techniques

Over the years several performance appraisal techniques have found favor with managers performing evaluations of employees. Rabin (1985) and Ivancevich and Glueck (1989) each identify nine appraisal techniques commonly used in evaluating employees. Although the lists differ slightly, the essence of each is the same. These techniques are the narrative, rank order, critical incident,

forced choice, forced distribution, paired comparison, objective rating, adjective scale, and behaviorally anchored rating scale. Generally these nine appraisal techniques fall under two categories: trait systems (narrative, rank order, forced distribution, paired comparison, and adjective scale) and behavior-based systems (critical incident, forced choice, objective rating, and behaviorally anchored rating scale). The difference between these two categories is obviously that one is based on specific instances of work behavior and the other is based on personal traits and characteristics exhibited in the work place. Rating personal traits and characteristics are valid if they are shown to be related to job performance, the reliability of trait-rating, however, is marginal at best.

The Narrative

This is an open-ended technique that is in essay form. The rater is asked to describe the strong and weak aspects of an employee's behavior. In some organisations the narrative is the only technique used but, in many organizations the narrative is used with another appraisal technique. The strength of this type of evaluation lies in the fact that the supervisor must devote a considerable time to the drafting of the narrative. This time spent allows the supervisor to reflect on the employee being evaluated and to embellish on points not covered, or not covered in detail, on a form that only allows the rater to check the appropriate box. The disadvantage lies in the nature of evaluators to remember only the most recent events (recency bias), to use only a few cryptic sentences to describe an employee, and the fact that not all supervisors have competent literary skills.

Rank Order

The rank order technique simply involves ordering employees from highest to lowest on some overall criterion. This technique becomes very difficult if the group being evaluated is greater than 20 in number. Rank order is easier to rate the best and worst employees than it is to rate the average employee, or employees that are very close in performance. This system is effective in reducing rating inflation since the process is comparative, but has serious drawbacks if the employees are linked closely in terms of performance--not to mention that the employees are at the mercy of a rater's subjective judgement.

Forced Distribution

Forced distribution is another technique that compares an employee's rating and is similar to grading students on a curve. The rater evaluates the traits of the employee and then assigns an overall rating, but, here, the rating must conform to a normally distributed bell curve. The rater is asked to rate employees in some fixed distribution of categories such as 10 percent in low, 20 percent in low average, 40 percent in average, 20 percent in high average, and 10 percent in high. This technique then offers a statistical basis for interpreting the low, mean and high score. The disadvantage in the forced distribution technique becomes evident when the employees being rated are either superior or inferior to the normal distribution, forcing the rater to either overrate or underrate the employees just so that they will fit a normal curve. So, rather than eliminate error, the forced distribution technique may introduce a different type of error.

Paired Comparison

The paired comparison is an unusual technique that is supported widely by those who use it. This approach makes the ranking method easier and more reliable. The first step is to list all employees on a sheet of paper and make a separate list of all employees on cards. The rater then compares the names on the cards with those on the list and chooses between the better of the two employees based on a criterion for each comparison. Typically, the criterion is

the overall ability to do the job. After comparing all employees, the one with the most checks is rated first and the one with the least is rated last. This technique is appealing because of its simplicity but is unappealing because of its potential for arbitrariness.

Adjective Scale

The adjective scale (also called rating scale) is one often preferred by raters because of the ease of administration. In fact, this technique is one of the oldest and most widely used. A series of traits to be rated such as those in Figure 1 are listed for each employee. The supervisor is asked to rate the employee on the characteristics listed. The rating can be in a series of boxes, or on a continuous scale (such as 0-9). Ratings are then assigned points such as score of 4 for "outstanding" and a score of 0 for "unsatisfactory" in the example given in Table 1. Although the adjective scale is the most widely used appraisal technique, words such as dependability, loyalty and initiative mean different things to different people and leave much room for interpretation, thereby reducing the reliability of this technique.

Figure 1

Adjective Scale

PERFORMANCE FACTORS	Outstanding	Good	Satisfactory	Fair	Unsatisfactory
1. Knowledge of Job	___	___	___	___	___
2. Use of Time and Material	___	___	___	___	___
3. Promptness	___	___	___	___	___
4. Dependability	___	___	___	___	___
5. Initiative	___	___	___	___	___
6. Perseverance	___	___	___	___	___

Critical Incident

This example of an appraisal technique is exclusively performance based. The personnel specialist along with supervisory staff compile a list of behaviors that are essential for the performance of the job in question. These are critical incidents. After the critical incidents are identified, the rater prepares a log for each employee. The rater then records employee behavior, both outstanding and inferior during the recording period, and the contents of the log are used to evaluate the employee after the recording period. The advantage to this technique is that it avoids the recency bias and the rater can make specific positive and negative comments. This technique can create undue anxiety among employees if they perceive that they will be written up for every mistake they make.

Forced Choice

The forced choice technique was developed because other methods at the time were producing too many high ratings. This technique allows the rater to evaluate an employee without even knowing which traits are being evaluated. This technique begins with personnel experts empirically determining which traits or behaviors are necessary for successful job behavior. They then construct an employee evaluation form which masks the behavior being rated. Forced choice gives the rater four or five statements about an employee as shown in figure 2 and the rater must then decide which statement best describes the employee being evaluated.

Figure 2

The Forced Choice Technique

For each question, the supervisor must select a statement that best describes the employee

1. The employee is:
_____ Punctual
_____ Supportive of coworkers
_____ Congenial
_____ Supportive of company policy

2. The employee is:
_____ Detail oriented
_____ Quick to learn new tasks
_____ Quick to complete assignments
_____ Well organized

Since all statements are complimentary to the employee, the rater has no way of knowing which trait is being rated. Although this is a valid trait-rating technique, raters have been critical mainly because they feel they may unknowingly penalize a good employee or reward a bad employee. In other words, the raters feel they have no control over this technique.

Objective Rating

Objective rating is exclusively performance oriented. This technique breaks a job down into its discrete tasks and then develops a performance standard for each task and measures work performance--quality, quantity or timeliness--against previously established standards. Objective ratings are used most in the private sector, primarily in piece-rate pay plans, but a variation of this technique is being adopted by the public sector by measuring workloads such as the number of flowers planted or acres of lawn mowed. This technique works best when the performance standards are developed in consultation with the affected employees.

Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale

The behaviorally anchored rating scale (BARS) tries to quantify performance appraisal. The different elements making up a job are described along with descriptive standards describing a range of employee performances. Each of these descriptive standards, to be job related, must be validated by job analysis. These descriptive standards (critical incidents) serve as anchor statements on a scale. These standards are then assigned a point value with the optimal performance receiving the highest rating. The rater then assigns one of the descriptive standards to each element of the job based on the employee's performance and a total score is obtained.

The advantage to this type of evaluation lies in the notion of a minimum cutoff point as well as the fact that an employee is rated against his/her performance and not ranked with other employees. An example of a descriptive standard contained in a Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale is shown in Figure 3 on the following page. Although research has shown that BARS is no more valid and reliable than other methods of employee evaluation, other research has indicated that subordinates involved with a BARS program are more committed, less tense, and more satisfied than their counterparts using other programs (Ivancevich, 1980).

Summary of Appraisal Techniques

Although it may seem difficult to select which of the nine techniques to use, it should be noted that not all are widely used. It is generally recognized that the adjective scale is the most popular appraisal technique. Studies have also shown that the narrative is also widely used, usually in conjunction with an adjective scale. Other studies show that other techniques such as forced choice, critical incident, BARS and several minor techniques not reviewed here, combined only equal about 5 percent of the techniques used, while ranking and paired comparison are used by 10 to 13 percent of employers.

Each appraisal technique has arguments why each should or shouldn't be used. The literature on the shortcomings, strengths, reliabilities, and validities is vast. There are studies, as Ivancevich and Glueck (1989) point out, showing that under certain circumstances each technique is

Figure 3

A Behaviorally Anchored Rating Scale

Programming Competence
(The technical ability that is directly applied to completing a special event)

Programmer's Name

_____

_____9__This programmer applies a full range of technical skills and can be expected to perform all assignments in an excellent manner.

_____8__

_____7__This programmer is able to apply in most situations a good range of technical skills and can be expected to perform most assignments well.

_____6__

_____5__This programmer is able to apply some technical skills and can be expected to adequately complete most assignments.

_____4__

_____3__This programmer has difficulty applying technical skills and can be expected to complete most projects late.

_____2__

_____1__This programmer is confused about using technical skills and can be expected to disrupt the completion of work because of this deficiency.

Adapted from: Ivancevich, J. M., & Glueck, W. F. (1989). Foundations of personnel: Human resource management. Homewood: Irwin.

good, and under other circumstances each technique is bad. The major problem with the techniques seems not necessarily with the technique itself, but, with the method of administration. To conclude, therefore, this article will review proper administration of performance appraisals as well as the characteristics of a good performance appraisal system.

Administration of Performance Appraisal

Along with determining the most effective performance appraisal technique to be used, the method of administering the appraisal is of equal importance. Rabin (1985) identifies three preappraisal and three postappraisal efforts that will insure the appraisal system used will have the maximum chance of success in achieving its desired goal. The preappraisal efforts are (1) training the raters, (2) orienting the new employees and (3) preappraisal counseling. The postappraisal efforts are (1) review the appraisal results with the employee, (2) link the appraisal to compensation and promotion, and (3) formally solicit employee feedback.

In the first preappraisal effort, training the raters, the major emphasis is on the technique and purpose of administering the performance appraisal. In addition, if there have been any changes in company policy or in the law since the administration of the last performance appraisal, then these changes should be conveyed at this time. Because ideally a rater should have taken part in the construction of the appraisal instrument, the rater should be familiar with the purposes of performance appraisals by this time. After the instrument has been constructed and data gathered, the rater needs to understand how to better process and evaluate the data. Inadequate training of raters in the techniques and purposes of administering the performance appraisal could lead to breakdowns in the system.

Perhaps the most critical step necessary for the success of the performance appraisal process is the orientation of new employees. During this second step, new employees are briefed thoroughly on job responsibilities and performance standards and, if applicable, new employees should be told of the nature of the probationary period and the importance of the first evaluation. By orienting new employees, two important objectives are accomplished. First, new employees are informed about employer expectations and that performance will be monitored and, second, the employee is left with the impression that performance appraisals are serious business.

The third preappraisal effort is preappraisal counseling. All employees, despite length of service, should receive preappraisal counseling if there is a danger that the employee will receive a marginal or unsatisfactory appraisal. This type of counseling should stress the specific problem and remedial or corrective suggestions. Employees who accept and act upon the counseling given at this session should not receive an unsatisfactory rating as part of the employee's permanent record. Judicial reviews have upheld such counseling as prima facie or valid proof that unsatisfactory ratings were not given capriciously.

Postappraisal efforts are also necessary to insure the success of the appraisal system in achieving its goal. The first of these efforts is to review the appraisal results with the employee. Employees should never be handed an appraisal and left on their own to decide what each rating meant. An employee should have each item on the form explained along with the procedure used to arrive at the employee's rating. After this stage, an employee is usually given the opportunity to comment on the appraisal if the employee disagrees as well as sign a statement acknowledging that the process and the ratings have been explained (Evans, 1984).

The second postappraisal effort is to link the appraisal to compensation and promotion (Dunnette & Fleishman, 1982; Shulman, 1982; Siegel & Myrtle, 1985). Although many organisations recognise that superior performance should be rewarded, few regard the performance appraisal as the means for identifying promotions and pay increases. Often, especially in the public sector, pay increases are automatically activated as an employee reaches some anniversary date. Since in these cases the appraisal is not linked to compensation, the appraisal seems merely to serve the purpose of a sanction.

The last postappraisal effort is to solicit employee feedback. Each employee should be allowed the opportunity to evaluate the appraisal process at a time other than their formal performance appraisal session. This feedback should be solicited by members of the personnel department and not from the immediate supervisors. This will give management the opportunity to analyze the appraisal process and make adjustments that are acceptable to the employees. Feedback is accepted by almost all organizations with successful performance appraisal systems as part of the administration of the appraisal instrument.

Conclusion

Klingner and Nalbandian (1985) enumerate four characteristics of an effective evaluation system. First, because performance standards will vary depending on characteristics of the employee, the objectives of the organization, and available resources, it is important to use separate evaluation systems for separate purposes. Connected with performance appraisals, a supervisor must assume two different supervisory roles. If the performance appraisal is to be associated with allocation of rewards, then the supervisor acts in the capacity of a judge. If the performance appraisal is associated with improved employee performance, then the supervisor acts in the capacity of a coach or facilitator. For these reasons, designing a single appraisal form that addresses all of the above issues is impossible (Brademas & Lowrey, 1988).

Second, the raters should have the opportunity, ability and desire to rate employees accurately. The performance evaluation must be job related, must allow for the interaction of evaluator and evaluatee and must serve the performance needs of both the individual and the organization.

Third, job evaluation and performance evaluation need to be more closely related by the development and constant updating of occupation-specific job descriptions that include performance standards as well as duties, responsibilities and minimum qualifications. These job evaluations also must include the conditions under which the job is to be performed. The changing nature of organizations mean that performance standards are also changing, and not necessarily at regularly scheduled intervals.

Fourth, evaluation must be tied to long-range employee objectives such as promotion and career planning, thus insuring employee interest in the process. Without the interest of the employee, the process will never elicit the changes in behavior desired by the supervisor.

The final suggestions in Figure 4 summarize the steps that a leisure services manager should follow to develop and implement an appropriate performance appraisal system. A well designed and purposeful instrument will insure that the objectives of both the agency and the employee are being met.

Figure 4

Suggestions to Follow for Developing and Implementing Legally Defensible Appraisal Systems

---

1. Procedures for personnel decisions must not differ as a function of the race, sex, national origin, or age of those affected by such decisions.

2. Objective-type, nonrated, and uncontaminated data should be used whenever available.

3. A formal system of review or appeal should be available for appraisal disagreements.

4. More than one independent evaluator of performance should be used.

5. A formal, standardized system for the personnel decision should be used.

6. Evaluators should have ample opportunity to observe ratee performance (if ratings must be made).

7. Ratings on traits such as dependability, drive, aptitude, or attitude should be avoided.

8. Performance appraisal data should be empirically validated.

9. Specific performance standards should be communicated to employees.

10. Raters should be provided with written instructions on how to complete the performance appraisal.

11. Employees should be evaluated on specific work dimensions rather than a single overall or global measure.

12. Behavioral documentation should be required for extreme ratings (e.g., critical incidents).

13. The content of the appraisal form should be based on a job analysis.

14. Employees should be provided with an opportunity to review their appraisal.

15. Personnel decision makers should be trained on laws regarding discrimination.

Source: Bernardin, J., & Cascio, W. F. (1987) "Performance appraisal and the law," in Youngblood, S.A. and Huber, V. (eds.) Readings in personnel and human resource management, (3rd Ed.) St. Paul: West Publishing.

References

Bernardin, J., & Cascio, W. F. (1987) "Performance appraisal and the law," in Youngblood, S.A. and Huber, V. (eds.) Readings in personnel and human resource management, (3rd Ed.) St. Paul: West Publishing.

Brademas, J. & Lowrey, G. (1988). "Personnel performance appraisal practices in Illinois leisure service agencies: 1985." Journal of Parks and Recreation Administration, 6 (1), 24-28.

Cascio, W. F. (1987). Applied psychology in personnel management. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Culkin, D.F., & Kirsch, S.L. (1986). Managing human resources in recreation, parks, and leisure services. New York: McMillan.

Dunnette, M.D. & Fleishman, E.A. (1982). Human performance and productivity vol. 1: human capability assessment. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Evans, T.B. (ed.). (1984). Facilities management a manual for plant administration. Washington D. C.: Association of Physical Plant Administrators of Universities and Colleges.

Gellerman, S. Motivation. (1973). San Diego: University Associates.

Greg, S., & Weil, M. "Resident Physician at P. G. General Hospital Arrested."

Ivancevich, J.M. (1980). "A longitudinal study of behavioral expectation scales: Attitudes and performance." Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, (4), 215-221.

Ivancevich, J.M., & Glueck, W.F. (1989). Foundations of personnel: Human resource management. Homewood: Irwin, 1989.

Klingner, D.E., & Nalbandian, J. (1985). Public personnal management contexts and strategies. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Kraus, R.G., & Curtis J.E. (1986). Creative management in recreation, parks, and leisure services, (4th ed.). St. Louis: Times Mirror/Mosby.

McMillan, J.D., & Doyel, H.W. (1980, July-August). Performance appraisal: Match the tool to the task." Personnel, p. 12.

Morley, E.. (1986). A practitioner's guide to public sector productivity improvement. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Rabin, J. (1985). Personnel: Managing human resources in the public sector. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Schuler, R.S. (1981). Personnel and human resource management. St. Paul: West Publishing.

Shulman, L. (1982). Skills of supervision and staff management. Itasca: F. E. Peacock.

Siegel, G.B., & Myrtle, R.C. (1985). Public personnel administration: Concepts and practices. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Legal Rights and Obligations of Universities, Students and Employers

Clark T. Thorstenson, Brigham Young University

A summation of quotes on legal issues in cooperative education. Taken from Cooperative Education In A New Era, Legal Issues, Legal Issues in Experiential Education, by Michael B. Goldstein, Esq. attorney, General Counsel to the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education, and former associate vice-chancellor at the University of Illinois-Chicago.

"As cooperative education is the joining of the worlds of work and learning, so the law of cooperative education is a confluence of the laws of the workplace and those of higher education." 1:169

Definition

"...Internships, practica, work-learning, cooperative education, community education, experimental education, and of course volunteering [are] included under the term 'service learning' [since] the common denominator is the combining of a work or service component with learning. The work may be compensated or unpaid; it may be on behalf of a public body, a nonprofit or profit-making organisation, a community, or a group of individuals; the learning may be formal or informal, for credit or not, and at any educational level..." 2:1

The Need for Written Agreements

"While most courts still try to avoid entangling themselves in academic decision-making, there are cases that point to a new willingness to impose obligations upon schools that in the past were never seriously considered. To avoid such conflicts, service-learning educators should seek a mutual understanding of expectations, preferably in writing." 2:3

"Because of the potential complexity of the relationship between the institution and the experience provider, it is always advisable that the parties enter into a written agreement setting forth their mutual rights and responsibilities. ...In most cases, it is appropriate for the learner to receive a copy of the agreement, and often it is useful for the learner to signify his or her understanding by signing a copy." 3:10

"The responsibilities of the student are to both the institution and to the experience provider. To the institution the student owes the obligation to carry out the experiential learning activities in such a manner as will merit the award of credit or other credentialing. ...The student must be fully aware of these requirements in advance of entering into the program; otherwise, the institution may have difficulty in enforcing its rights." 3:11

"To the experience provider the student owes the responsibility of carrying out the assigned tasks in a proper manner. ...The problems arise where the relationship is fluid, and less well defined...where the student lacks an understanding to whom he or she is responsible, that the most serious legal problems may arise. The participation of the student in the experiential learning agreement can go long way towards resolving such ambiguities." 3:11

"...With experiential learning...the student may assume certain learning outcomes very different from those of the institution. ...The result of such a variance at best will be confusion and a diminution of the value of the learning experience; at worst, it may result in a lawsuit...the solution is to seek the highest level of mutual understanding and agreement, where possible set forth in writing." 3:2

"If there is no cooperative education learning contract, the terms and conditions of the [educational] program will be deduced from the entirety of the circumstances. ...There have been examples of successful student suits based upon improper counseling by faculty members, even though the faculty member lacked the formal authority to bind the institution. ...More attention must therefore be given to agreements that predetermine respective rights and responsibilities." 1:184-185

"The conclusion for those involved in developing and administering experiential learning programs [such a cooperative education or internships] is the need to ensure that the relationship among the student, the employer, and the school is, to the maximum extent feasible, regularized and committed to a set of consistent standards. ...those...should be enshrined in the form of an enforceable agreement." 1:186

"Because of the potential complexity of the relationships between institutions and agencies providing volunteer experiences, it is always advisable for these parties to enter into written agreements describing their mutual rights and responsibilities. ...Regardless of whether there is compensation, a written understanding between school and agency can avoid many problems and misunderstandings. A minimum amount of time and effort expended in establishing the rights and responsibilities of all parties <u>before</u> the service-learning [cooperative education/internship] program begins may save vast amounts of time, effort, and money later on." 2:11

"Since learning contracts can, and indeed should be, binding agreements, they must clearly set forth the rights, responsibilities, and expectations of the student, the school, and organization providing the work site. The better and more complete this agreement the less likely it is that problems will arise over misinterpretations or misunderstandings." 2:4

Legal Implications

<u>Teachers:</u>

"A teacher who establishes a service-learning program on his or her own initiative may be personally liable if that activity is found to be outside the scope of his or her employment...Since such programs are often outside the normal scope of an institution's program...approval should not be taken for granted; preferably, there should be written authority to undertake such an effort." 2:13

<u>Courts:</u>

"The courts have become very serious about student rights and are more willing than ever to enforce them against institutions or other parties." 2:12

<u>Academic Credit:</u>

"Where the student is receiving academic credit for the coop period, particularly through the vehicle of enrollment in a catalogue-listed coop course, the school should regard the student as maintaining his or her enrollment." 1:188

<u>Impairments:</u>

"Students...have an obligation to inform their schools or agencies of any special or unusual characteristic, such as illness, allergy, or other limitation, which might restrict their participation in service-learning programs." 2:12

<u>Taxes:</u>

"In almost all cases, however, the earnings of students participating in compensated cooperative education programs are fully taxable as ordinary income." 1:179

<u>Firing:</u>

"A coop student is generally subject to all of the ordinary attributes of employment, including termination. However, this power ...may be modified under

the terms of an agreement entered into between the employer and the student's institution, which may impose certain specific requirements or procedures in the event it is determined that the student's participation should be terminated." 1:180

Safety:

"While the employer clearly has the obligation to employ students in a safe place, the school may have a parallel obligation not to place them in a situation known to be unreasonably hazardous." 1:191 "The key element is prior knowledge: if the school (or its employees) knew, or should have known, of a risk to the student, the school may be responsible if the student is injured. For example, assigning students to work sites known to be dangerous may open a school to liability for resulting injury." 2:5

Assumption of Risk:

"To take advantage of the protection afforded by an assumption of risk, the student must be informed, in advance, of any risks inherent in the activity, and must knowingly consent to undertake such risks. ...Examples...are medical and psychiatric areas, criminal justice activities, and field expeditions." 2:6

Waivers:

"The most frequent to questions of risk to the student is the suggestion that the student (and usually his or her parents) sign a waiver of liability. Regrettably, such documents are, by and large, utterly useless." 3:5

"In most cases, it is a relatively simple matter to have an institution's general liability policy amended to expressly incorporate the activities of coop participants. It is important to recognize that in doing this the institution is in no way changing its own liability." 1:198

Health Insurance:

"...The student health insurance may not be in effect during the coop period, particularly where the student is not officially enrolled in a cooperative education course...even where students register for a coop course, their health insurance may be written so as to exclude such periods or to exclude injuries obtained while at work and not attending classes. The solution is to ensure that the insurance policy covers coop participation or to provide students with access to a special policy during such periods." 1:199

References

1 Goldstein, M.B., et al., Cooperative Education In A New Era, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1987).

2 Goldstein, M.B., Legal Issues Resource Booklet, (Washington, D.C.: Action/National Center For Service Learning). No Date.

3 Goldstein, M.B., "Legal Issues in Experiential Education," Peer Assistance Network In Experiential Learning, Paper No. 3, National Society for Internships and Experiential Education, December 1981, Washington, D.C.

ASSESSING THE NET ECONOMIC IMPACT OF A LARGE-SCALE SPECIAL EVENT

Douglas M. Turco, Illinois State University

Introduction

Special events are a phenomena shared by numerous communities throughout the country and generally make a positive contribution to the local economy. The ability to determine the economic impact of festivals, fairs and tournaments is of great value to public and private groups in any community. The economic gain may be the deciding factor in future resource allocation decisions concerning the event.

Methods used to accurately assess the economic impact of large-scale special events have received considerable attention (Ritchie and Aitken, 1984; Buck, 1977; Della Britta, Loudon, Booth and Weeks, 1980; Turco, 1991). Debate has focused on defining the "local" economy (Davidson and Schaffer, 1980), sampling procedures (Mak, Moncur & Yonamine, 1977; Gitelson, Guadagnolo & Moore, 1989) and multipliers (Archer, 1984). While the previous research has contributed to a refined economic impact methodology, relatively few studies have attempted to apply, in aggregate, these refined assessment techniques. The purpose of this article is to illustrate the steps involved in an economic impact study of a large-scale recreation special event.

There are several reasons why the public and private sectors support special events. One consideration for establishing a special event is to bring tourist dollars into a region during the off season or in periods of time when the number of visitors is lower than normal (seasonality). Such attractions also provide promotional and exposure opportunities for the community to a specific market and may enhance or create a community image. Further, special events create and stimulate economic activity on an annual basis and thereby provide an impetus for employment opportunities.

Justification for developing or continuing a special event lies in the benefits to be received. For most special events, there are benefits to the consumers of the goods and services produced by the event such as entertainment, enjoyment and satisfaction. However, benefits to the patrons are small relative to the economic benefits to be gained by the numerous tourist related businesses such as lodging establishments and eating and drinking places. In other words, the economic benefits derived by the local tourist industry are the primary variables in special event impact assessments.

Economic Impact Assessment

Economic impact is defined as the net change in the host economy as a result of spending attributed to a special event. There are basically two components which contribute to the economic impact of special events on local communities. The first is the degree to which the event stimulates sales by nonresidents. The second is the degree to which residents and local businesses purchase their goods and services locally. Increasing either one of these components can increase the event's economic impact on the local economy. In order to assess the economic impact of a recreation special event, both of these components should be estimated for the area under study.

The economic effects of conducting a recreation special event, investing in recreational development projects, and spending while recreating are often categorized into (a) primary or direct impact and (b) secondary or indirect impacts. Direct impacts arise from transactions closely related to the event, such as material and labor purchases made to produce the event of the expenditures for various good and services for event patrons both on and off the event site. The indirect or secondary impacts include the chain of events that result from the direct effects, including changes in employment levels, gross

regional product, factor earnings, and institutional incomes like personal income or government revenues. Non-monetary benefits such as increased awareness and enhanced image of the host community are also considered secondary impacts of a recreation special event.

This article discusses the techniques used in an economic impact study of a recent large-scale special event hosted within the Intermountain Region, the 1990 Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta. Large-scale recreation special events may be considered synonymous to "hallmark events" as defined by Ritchie (1984):

> Major one time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short and/or long term. Such events rely for their success on uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention (p.2).

Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta

The Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta (AIBF) is the largest ballooning event in the world. Four hundred ninety-three balloonists representing 16 countries and 50 states participated with approximately 1.2 million people in attendance. The 19th Annual AIBF was a nine-day event held on a 70 acre park in Albuquerque's north valley and featured a musical concert, four mass accessions, balloon glow, balloon competitions, and food, beverage and souvenir sales. Activities typically began on the Fiesta grounds at 6:00 a.m. and continued until 12 noon.

A comprehensive analysis of patrons, balloonists, the AIBF, Inc., and vendors during the 1990 Balloon Fiesta was conducted to determine the direct economic impact to Bernalillo County as a result of their expenditures. A principle objective of this study was to determine the level of nonresident patron, balloonist and vendor direct expenditures entering and remaining within the local economy. Previous research has indicated that a considerable amount of money may leave the host community with nonresident allied businesses (i.e., food, beverage, souvenir vendors) at the conclusion of the event (Turco, 1991). This phenomena has been termed the "vendor factor" and may be determined by subtracting spending at allied event businesses by the local expenditures made by these businesses. Failure to account for the vendor factor will lead to a gross overestimation of direct economic impact and results of limited utility.

Data and Methods

Data Collection Instruments

A questionnaire was developed by researchers and AIBF, Inc. officials to accurately measure expenditures of patrons, balloonists and vendors for all categories of possible spending: Lodging, meals, gasoline, groceries, alcoholic beverages, retail shopping, and entertainment. Other questions included on the survey instrument sought patron demographic information (age, gender, race, and residence), visitor group size, primary reason for visiting the community, and how the visitor obtained information about the special event.

Expenditure Data Collection

Patrons

Interviews were conducted with a random sample of patrons to the Balloon Fiesta grounds during each of the event's nine days of operation. Every sixth patron was selected to participate in the survey as they exited the Fiesta grounds. This procedure controlled the distribution of the survey to event patrons, avoided personal bias in sample selection, self-selection by attendees

and assured total numbers contacted. The data were collected by interviewers instructed in field survey research.

Selection of days and hours of operation to sample special event patrons should be done at random to control for sampling bias and assure generalizability of results to the total population of patrons. For example, if a disproportionate number of surveys were conducted on weekends when out-of-town visitation may be higher, results would be biased upwards in terms of percentage of patrons who are visitors.

Only data compiled from survey respondent's who lived outside Bernalillo County were used to estimate expenditures and total economic impact. The rationale for excluding Bernalillo County residents is that their expenditures do not provide net stimulus to the local economy. Residents of the local area, even though they may spend money at or near the special event, presumably would have spent that money in the local area anyway on other goods and services. Expenditures by residents represent a switching of expenditures from one category to another (e.g., Balloon Fiesta admission fees instead of theater tickets). However, from a regional tourism business perspective, any switching to tourism is important, and from an individual tourism business perspective, switching expenditures are relevant because they represent a potential source of business.

A total of 598 completed patron interviews were obtained during the two days of the event and, based on the average visitor group size, are representative of over 2,400 Fiesta patrons. Survey responses were coded and entered into a computer statistical package, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSSx) to tabulate total expenditures, frequencies and percentages. All surveys are subject to sampling variability. For this study, the chances are 95 in 100 that the "true" population expenditure figure (or parameter) resides within the range equal to the reported figures plus or minus 4.0 percent.

Balloonists

Four hundred ninety-three nonresident balloonists representing 50 states and 16 countries participated in the 1990 Fiesta. For the purpose of this study, nonresident balloonists were those residing 50 miles or more (one way) from Bernalillo County. Results presented in this section are based on data derived from a convenient sample of approximately 14 percent of all nonresident pilots (N=68). Data were collected from on-site interviews with head pilots conducted the last two days of the event.

Vendors

Twenty-seven businesses headquartered outside Bernalillo County were issued permits by event organizers to sell food, beverages, souvenirs and other merchandise during the Fiesta. Data were collected from in-person interviews with 21 nonresident vendors (75 percent) during the last day of the Fiesta.

Findings

Scope of Study

Direct expenditures encompass the initial expenditures within Bernalillo County that arise as a result of the operation of the Balloon Fiesta. These are the expenditures that are attributable to the Fiesta's existence, and are therefore a direct measure of the impact of the Fiesta's operations on the local economy. This study measured the direct expenditures of: (a) AIBF nonresident patrons on and off the Fiesta grounds; (b) the AIBF, Inc. to conduct the event; and (c) nonresident balloon pilots; and (d) nonresident allied businesses (vendors).

Patron Spending

Expenditures resulting from patrons were determined by applying categorical average expenditures per patron group to the number of groups who made purchases within the category. For illustrative purposes, Table 1 provides an example of the calculations used to determine patron spending totals for lodging from survey data. The 1990 AIBF attendance figure (1.2 million) was multiplied by the percent of the survey sample who spent money for lodging (16.16 percent); the product (193,920) was then divided by the sample mean group size of those who spent money for lodging (4.23). This total (45,844) was divided by the sample mean number of 1990 AIBF visits made by those who spent for lodging (3.69) to determine the total number of groups which spent money for accommodations (12,424). Lastly, this figure was multiplied by the sample mean lodging expenditure ($196.83) to determine the total primary visitor group spending for lodging (2,445,416). Identical procedures were used to determine total patron spending for each expenditure category.

Table 2 illustrates the nonresident patron expenditures by category off the Fiesta grounds. These expenditures were derived from a question on the survey which asked nonresident patrons about their spending behavior while in Bernalillo County for such things as food and beverages, lodging, and retail purchases.

Visitors to the 1990 Balloon Fiesta spent approximately $18.5 million in Bernalillo County during the nine days of the event. The average visitor group spent approximately $712 for such goods and services as lodging, meals, retail items and gasoline. This money is attributed as economic impact from the Balloon Fiesta because these expenditures were made by non-residents who visited Bernalillo County primarily to attend the AIBF. These expenditures would not have occurred were it not for the existence of the AIBF.

Table 1
Example of Calculations to Determine Patron Spending by Category

AIBF Attendance	1,200,000
Percent of Sample Who Spent for Lodging	x .1616
	193,920
Mean Visitor Group Size of Sample Who spent for Lodging	/4.23
	45,844
Mean Fair Visits of Sample Who Spent for lodging	/3.69
	12,424
Mean Lodging Expenditures-PVG	x $196.83
Total Lodging Expenditures-PVG	2,445,416

Table 2
Nonresident Fiesta Patron Spending in Bernalillo County by Category

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Total*
Lodging	$154	$ 15	$ 3,000	$5,199,337
Meals	157	5	3,000	6,694,806
Transport	42	10	700	654,581
Retail	125	5	2,000	3,528,862
Alcohol	31	1	2,000	399,404
Entertainment	61	2	5,000	744,667
Gasoline	23	1	250	684,381
Groceries	6	1	700	68,843
Camera	8	1	500	451,850
Other	105	15	8,000	474,638
Total	$712			$18,582,750

*Totals based on category means as applied to the total number of non resident patron groups which spent money for category goods and services.

Nonresident patrons spent over $2.2 million on the Fiesta grounds for such goods and services as food, entertainment and alcoholic beverages (See Table 3). Table 4 reveals that, on average, resident groups spent considerably more than nonresidents on the Fiesta grounds. This finding is reflective of the greater repeat visitation rate among residents.

Table 3

Nonresident Spending on Fiesta Grounds by Category

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Total
Food	$32.2	$1	$ 800	$1,426,827
Beverages	3.3	1	100	54,292
Entertainment	9.8	2	500	40,186
Souvenirs	6.4	1	500	219,509
Alcohol	33.3	1	800	401,060
Film	6.4	5	600	42,783
Parking	1.6	1	60	12,761
Other	25.2	1	900	29,259
Total	$118.2			$2,226,677

Table 4

Resident Group Spending on Fiesta Grounds by Category

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Total
Food	$42.7	$1	$ 700	$987,155
Beverages	18.9	1	500	202,108
Entertainment	12.8	2	350	34,212
Souvenirs	23.1	1	800	260,513
Alcohol	28.6	1	800	113,610
Film	9.5	1	500	33,559
Parking	2.9	1	60	13,540
Other	9.5	2	600	21,499
Total	$150.4			$1,666,196

Balloonists

Nonresident balloonists and their immediate travel group averaged approximately eight persons in size. Balloonist groups each spent approximately $3,046 in Bernalillo County during their stay for such goods and services as lodging, meals, retail items and gasoline (See Table 5). This figure, when applied to the total number of nonresident balloonist groups reveals the extent of their direct impact to the local economy - over $1.5 million.

Table 5

Nonresident Balloonist Spending in Bernalillo County by Category

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Total*
Lodging	$862	$100	$4200	$424,864
Meals	834	35	4500	411,089
Balloon Fuel	32	20	500	15,914
Retail	687	50	7000	338,539
Entertainment	93	1	1000	46,023
Camera	79	5	500	38,722
Alcohol	219	2	1000	108,047
Groceries	93	25	700	45,892

Gasoline	138	20	500	68,149
Other	9	1	300	4,350
Total	$ 3,046			$1,501,589

*Mean spending figure multiplied by number of nonresident pilots (N=493)

On-site expenditures by nonresident balloonists groups totaled over $286,000 (See Table 6). These groups each spent approximately $582 on the Fiesta grounds during the event, primarily for souvenirs/gifts, food and beverages. Collecting memorabilia (i.e., pins, hats, shirts, etc.) from ballooning events is a popular hobby among pilots and explains, in part, the high expenditure totals within the souvenir/gifts category.

Table 6
Nonresident Balloonist Group Spending on Fiesta Grounds by Category

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Total
Food	$161.2	$ 3	$1000	$ 79,482
Beverages	29.6	5	400	14,594
Souvenirs	360.8	20	2400	177,915
Alcohol	15.8	5	500	7,829
Film	8.7	7	300	4,292
Parking	2.2	9	80	1,080
Other	2.8	22	100	1,407
Total	$582.2			$286,598

Vendors

Nonresident vendor spending in Bernalillo County totaled $72,217 for such purchases as lodging, meals, gasoline, groceries and business supplies (See Table 7). Considering the large scale of the Fiesta, the relatively low supply purchase totals by nonresident vendors is noteworthy. This phenomenon may be attributed to vendors who pre-purchased inventory in their local market place and transported the supplies to Albuquerque.

Table 7
Nonresident Vendor Spending in Bernalillo County by Category

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Total*
Lodging	$781	$100	$5000	$ 21,099
Meals	579	100	4000	15,634
Balloon Fuel	89	200	595	2,411
Retail	211	50	1000	5,689
Entertainment	81	10	500	2,199
Camera	104	15	1000	2,809
Alcohol	123	20	400	3,317
Groceries	153	50	360	4,127
Gasoline	502	10	2500	13,550
Other	51	75	1000	1,382
Total	$ 2,674			$ 72,217

*Mean spending figure multiplied by number of nonresident vendors (N=27)

AIBF, Inc.

Based on financial records provided by the AIBF, Inc., approximately $1.45 million was spent within the local economy to conduct the event. This total

includes expenditures for staff salaries, entertainment, event promotions, utilities, contract services and other goods and services.

Vendor Factor

Twenty-eight percent of Fiesta food and souvenir vendors were nonresidents. Assuming on-site expenditures made by patrons and balloonists to resident and nonresident vendors were equally distributed, it is estimated that approximately $1,032,353 left the local economy (leakage) with these nonresident businesses when they returned home after the Fiesta (See Table 8).

Table 8

Vendor Factor Associated with the 1990 AIBF

Nonresident Patron Spending	$ 2,101,688
Resident Patron Spending	$ 1,563,386
Nonresident Balloonist	279,820
Total	$ 3,944,894
Percent to NR Vendors	x .28
NR Vendor Revenue	$ 1,104,570
Nonresident Vendor Spending	- 72,217
Vendor Factor	$ 1,032,353

Total direct spending in Bernalillo County attributed to the Fiesta totaled $24,195,700 (See Table 9). Adjusting this figure to account for expenditures leaving the economy via nonresident vendors reveals the net economic impact of the 1990 AIBF to Bernalillo County - $23,091,130. Failure to account for the vendor factor in this case would have lead to nearly a $1 million overestimation of total direct economic impact.

Table 9

Total Economic Impact of the 1990 AIBF

Spending Source	Direct Spending
NR Patron in BC	$18,582,750
NR Patron (on-site)	2,226,677
NR Balloonist in BC	1,501,589
NR Balloonists (on-site)	286,598
NR Vendor in BC	72,217
AIBF, Inc.	1,459,673
Subtotal	$24,195,700
NR Vendor Revenue	- 1,104,570
TOTAL DIRECT IMPACT	$23,091,130

Summary

This article has detailed the steps involved in assessing the economic impact of a large-scale recreation special event - the 1990 Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta. Specific calculation to determine the expenditures leaving the local economy via nonresident allied event businesses have been illustrated. In this case, nonresident allied event businesses collected over $1.1 million in patron and balloonist income, while spending $72,217 to stay and operate during the Fiesta. The vendor factor calculated for the 1990 AIBF, therefore totaled $1,032,353. It is concluded that recreation special events which rely upon numerous nonresident allied businesses for such services as

entertainment, food and beverages and souvenir sales must take into account the dollars leaving the local economy with these businesses to accurately assess economic impact. Methods employed in this article and in previous studies by Long and Perdue (1990) and Turco (1991) which examine the spatial distribution of expenditures attributed to recreation special events should be followed by researchers to take into account the vendor factor, yielding a more accurate estimation of economic impact.

References

Archer, B.H. (1984). Economic impact: Misleading multiplier. Annals of Tourism Research, 11, 516-518.

Buck, R.C. (1977). Making good business better: A second look at staged tourist attractions. Journal of Travel Research, 15, 30-32.

Burns, J.P.A., Hatch, J.H.& Mules, T.J. (1986). The Adelaide Grand Prix: The Impact of a Special Event. Adelaide: Centre for South Australia Economic Studies.

Davidson, L.S. & Schaffer, W.A. (1980). A discussion of methods employed in analyzing the impact of short-term entertainment events. Journal of Travel Research, 18, 12-16.

Della Britta, A.J., Loudon, D.L., Booth, G.G. & Weeks, R.R. (1977). Estimating the economic impact of a short-term tourist event. Journal of Travel Research, 16, 10-16.

Gitelson, R., Guadagnolo, F. & Moore, R. (1988). Economic impact analysis of a community-sponsored ten kilometer road race. Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 6, 79-89.

Long, P.T. & Perdue, R.R. (1990). The economic impact of rural festivals and special events: Assessing the spatial distribution of expenditures. Journal of Travel Research 30, 10-14.

Mak, J., Moncur, J. & Yonamine, D. (1977). How or how not to measure visitor expenditures. Journal of Travel Research, 16, 1-4.

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1984). Assessing the impact of hallmark events: Conceptual and research issues. Journal of Travel Research.

Ritchie, J.R.B. & Aitken, C.E. (1984). Assessing the impacts of the 1988 Olympic Winter Games: The research problem and initial results. Journal of Travel Research, 22, 17-25.

Turco, D.M. (1991). The Spatial Distribution of Expenditures Attributed to a Large-Scale Recreation Special Event (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Albuquerque: University of New Mexico.

Starting Your Own Recreation Business

Mike Vander Griend, University of California, San Diego

Introduction

It is perhaps everyone's dream to own their own business. Nowhere is this more clearly shown than in the changing face of business in the Soviet Union. As the Russian economy dives to the brink of disaster, Gorbachev and other state leaders are scrambling to right the sinking economic ship by the privatisation of business.

In the United States and other Western economies, most everyone desires to have their own business. Fortunately, the opportunity is there to go into business for oneself. Unfortunately, entrepreneur's dreams are stopped for many reasons.

Statistics have shown that approximately one thousand new businesses are started per day. Unfortunately, further study has shown that fifty-five percent of the businesses failed in the first five years. Failure has been found due to three reasons:

1. Lack of marketing know-how
2. Lack of technical know-how
3. Lack of financial know-how

Look Before You Leap

Successful entrepreneurs do extensive introspection and "investigate before they invest." Most successful firms spent six to nine months in researching the field, utilising professional advisors such as lawyers, accountants, and business consultants. Successful firms have modest financial expectations. In other words "don't spend the money too fast." Also, questions about yourself must be answered: Am I a self-starter? What are my leadership abilities? Am I a good organizer? Am I a good worker? Am I a good decision-maker? Do I have the energy, health and enthusiasm to carry the workload?

The Good News and the Bad News

Listed below are some of the advantages and disadvantages of owning your own business.

- o You are your own boss. True. But in many cases you gain more bosses--your clients.
- o You have your own independence. True. But also you are now responsible for a larger financial risk.
- o You may have the opportunity for greater financial rewards and a job security. However, remember the earlier depressing statistic. More than fifty percent of new firms fail within the first five years. How secure can that be for the faint-hearted?
- o You have the opportunity to be creative and develop your own ideas. You hope that your clients appreciate and admire your creativity.

There are other advantages and disadvantages to owning your own business. It is important to list those before making the plunge into self-ownership. If you add your advantages and disadvantages sheet to your marketing, technical and financial work sheet, you have done much of the homework necessary to make correct decisions.

Getting Started--Sources of Information

The Informational Interview

Interview entrepreneurs. Find out why they are successful. What was their start-up capital? Have them describe a typical day at their business. How long did it take for their business to become profitable? There are many questions to be asked and the informational interview may be very helpful as you start your business.

Associations

Most businesses have professional associations that are supportive and sources of information. Become involved. Serve on boards. Network.

Lawyers and Other Necessities

"You get what you pay for" may be a true axiom when seeking information from lawyers, financial planners and others. However, many budding entrepreneurs are short on start-up capital but long on enthusiasm and energy. Therefore, it seems wise to research for the most inexpensive avenue to obtain legal and financial information. Governmental agencies such as SCORE (Service Corps of Retired Executives) and private groups are helpful, yet inexpensive.

Regardless of whom you turn to for advice, remember that most successful businesses have taken at least six months of initial research and preparation before risking large amounts of capital.

All Systems "Go" - You're Really Going To Do This

You have decided to make the plunge. And, a plunge it is .... emotionally, financially and physically. You have weighed the advantages and disadvantages; you have talked with lawyers, accountants, financial planners, practicing career counselors, and friends. The green light to move ahead is still on. Listed below are some questions you need to answer about the form your business will take.

- Are you going to be in business by yourself? If so, your business is a sole proprietorship. If you are not in business by yourself, your business will be either a partnership or a corporation. If you want to limit your personal liability for debts, you should incorporate.

- Which form of business entity you take will result in limiting your taxes? Your present tax structure may help you decide which form of business best suits your tax needs.

- If you decided to be in business for yourself (sole proprietorship) you do not need a lawyer or approval from a governmental agency. If your form of business is a partnership or corporation, the paperwork can be much more involved. Generally, this means that these forms of business are more expensive to start and maintain.

Be aware that the choice of legal form that you chose does not necessarily have to be the final choice. Also, it is easier to change from a sole proprietorship to a corporation or partnership. The reverse is not as easily done.

Starting Your Own Business - Buying an Existing Business

There are other decisions in starting your own business. For example, do you want to start your own business or buy an existing business?

Some of the advantages of purchasing an on-going business are:

- o If it is a corporation or partnership, you could immediately draw some salary.
- o The risk may be less. You know that the business is already profitable (earlier research). You know there is already a market. When buying an already profitable business, your chances of failure are reduced because the factors of failures, i.e., new competition, etc., may be easily recognizable.
- o In buying an existing business, it is easier to get started. Facilities, etc., are already in place. You can put all your energies into focusing on establishing a larger clientele.

However, buying into an existing business may have some pitfalls. May the buyer beware. Get help from an attorney or accountant to avoid these problems. Certain questions should be asked.

- o Why do they want to sell a profitable business?
- o Does the firm have a good reputation?
- o What are the assets and liabilities?
- o Just how profitable is the business?

Is your business franchised? One should not overlook this as a passage into the field. All the questions that need to be answered when buying an existing business need to be answered when buying a franchise.

- o Get a lawyer.
- o Go through escrow.
- o Use holdbacks. You may want to hold back part of the purchase price for a stated (agreed upon) time to assure yourself that no misrepresentations have taken place. If there has been some Misrepresentation, you have some leverage (held back money) from which to negotiate a settlement.

Starting Your Own Business

The following steps must be taken in starting almost all businesses:

Choosing Your Business Name

Generally, it is recommended that your business name describes the product or services that are provided. Interestingly, before you put your own name on your business, you should understand the ramifications if your business goes "bellyup" with your name on it.

Once the name has been selected, you or your attorney should check to see if the same or a confusingly similar name is already being used. If a business is using the name selected by you for your business, or a corporation with your name from another area has the rights to have a business in the area where you are, then you may need to change your name. Similarly, you may want to incorporate to another area. Again, you may have to change your name to avoid problems later when incorporating in other areas.

Obtain Local Business Licenses

All businesses will need city or county licenses to operate. Most of these licenses may be obtained at the local city hall or county office. Also, you need to determine what state licenses are required for your business. Generally, this may be based on bonding requirements, educational restrictional and a licensing examination. Other concurrent items to consider when securing licensing are as follows:

- o Are you going to need any permits?
- o Be prepared to immediately make estimated income tax payments. These payments will be based on the form of business that you choose.
- o Be prepared to immediately locate a competent insurance agent to provide the necessary insurances for your business.
- o If you are a partnership or corporation, you will need to file additional income tax forms, articles of incorporation (if a corporation), apply for a Federal Employer Identification Number, etc. As you can see, you are making the trip through the red tape of bureaucracy.

Locating the Office

Home

You may want to have your office in your home. Certainly you save on leasing costs. However, certain precautions must be considered.

- o Is your home in an area zoned for business? If not, you may find an irate neighbor with a zoning officer at your door.
- o If you are leasing your home, you will need your landlord's permission to have your business at home.
- o A home is a home; an office is an office. Mixing the two may be a mistake. If your office is at home, make the office space reflect professionalism and competence. If your home/office space appears to your clients as a part-time play thing, you may quickly discourage business.

Not at Home

Location, location and location are the top three considerations when finding office space. After continually referring to the above, here are other points to consider when finding an office.

- o When determining the geographic location for your office, review statistics from the Economic Census Report (ECR), a guide which provides population growth statistics by region, division area, county and city. The ECR will give the number of current business establishments and their volume of sales.
- o Chamber of Commerces, banks, planning counsels and boards also can provide information about business opportunities in various sections of towns.
- o Can your clientele easily get to your office?
- o Does your office present the image that is appropriate to your business?

The Customer

It is important to understand that setting up the business is done concurrently with establishing a clientele. To do each separately would be wasting time. But once your business is open, how do you get customers in the door? Below are some suggestions for marketing your business.

Networking

A word of the late 80s and 90s may be your most effective marketing tool.

Richard Bolles makes a very important statement. "When looking for a job, tell everyone that you are looking for a job." The same holds true when starting a new business. Let everyone, friend, church members, softball teammates, etc., know you're open for business.

Conclusion

So you want to go into business for yourself. Remember the discouraging statistics. Most small businesses are out of business within a relatively short time. However, you too an be successful if you have a plan. Most successful entrepreneurs did the following:

- Had the prerequisite background and training to be considered a professional in this business.
- Did their homework. That is, they had done the research necessary to fully understand the task necessary to have a successful business. This means seeking information from lawyers, financial planners, accountants, and others.
- Determined the best location for their business? Will it be your home or elsewhere? What location will be the most successful for you and make you the most happy?
- Knew all the state, local and federal laws that pertained to their business. Or, they knew where to got the answers on the various laws.
- Had a marketing plan. How are you going to have a steady flow of Customers? How are you going to keep your business name and expertise out in the community?
- Ask the hard questions. Do you want to go into business for yourself? Do you want to buy an existing business? Do you want to incorporate? What is the best business organization for you?

Years ago a banker friend suggested that if I follow my dream, the money will follow. As I get older, I have tried to follow that advice. However, to that advice I must now add "follow your dream, but also have a sound business plan." Certainly my adage is not as romantic, but it keeps the wolf from the door.

References

Burstiner, Irving. The Small Business Handbook: A Comprehensive Guide to Starting and Running Your Own Business. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hill, 1979.

Kamoroff, Bernard. Small Time Operator: How to Start Your Own Business, Keep Your Books, Pay Your Taxes and Stay Out of Trouble. Laytonville, CA: Bell Springs Publisher, 1987.

Jenkins, Michael. Starting and Operating a Business in California. Alameda, CA: Oasis Press, 1982.

Kuriloft, Arthur. How to Start Your Own Business and Succeed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1981.

Park, William. How to Succeed in Your Own Business. New York: Wiley, 1978.

Taylor, John. How to Start and Succeed in a Business of Your Own. Reston, VA: Reston Publishing Co., 1978.

Timmons, Jeffrey. New Venture Creation: A Guide to Entrepreneurship. Homewood, IL: R. O. Irwin, 1985.

A PARTIAL BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SURVIVAL LITERATURE

Skills and Field Books

The Art of Survival	Troebst, Cord C.
Back to Eden	Kloss, Jethro
The Book of Survival	Greenback, Anthony
Bushcraft	Graves, Robert
Common Edible/Useful Plants of West	Sweet, Muriel
Fieldbook	Boy Scouts of America
Folk Medicine	Jaruis, D.C.
How to Survive on Land & Sea	Craighead, Frank
Living Off The Country	Angier, Bradford
Outdoor Safety & Survival	Risk, Paul
Outdoor Survival Skills	Olsen, Larry Dean
Survival Arts/Primitive Paiutes	Wright, Margaret M.
The Survival Book	Mesbitt, Paul
Survival Safety Anywhere	Wiseman, John
The S.A.S. Survival Manual	Wiseman, John
The Weed Cook Book	Crowburst, Ardriene
Wild Edible Plants of Western U.S.	Kirk, Donald R.
Wildwood Wisdom	Jaeger, Ellsworth

American History

Alone in the Wilderness	Knowles, Joseph
Give Your Hart to the Hawks	Blevins, Winfred
Ishi, Last of His Tribe	Kroeber, Theodora
Journal of a Trapper	Russell, Osborn
Ordeal by Hunger	Stewart, George R.
The Saga of Hugh Glass	Myers, John

Aircraft Crash

Alive: The Story of the Andes Survivors	Read, Piers Paul
Hey I'm Alive	Klaben, Helen
I Alone Survived	Elder, Lauren
The Sacrament	Gzowski, Peter

Arctic

Annapurna	Herzog, Maurice
Endurance: Shackleton's Incredible Voyage	Lancing, Alfred
Mawson's Will	Bickel, Lennard
Shackleton's Boat Journey	Worsley, F.A.

Sea

The Boat	Gibson, Walter
The Day They Sank the Lusitania	Chidsey, Donald Barr
Lost	Thompson, Thomas
Mrs. Fraser on the Fatal Shore	Alexander, Michael
Saved!	Hoffer, William
Survive the Savage Sea	Robertson, Dougal
117 Days Adrift	Bailey, M. & M.

Politics, Prisons & War

Andersonville	McElroy, John
An American in the Gulag	Dolgun, Alexander
Banco	Charrere, Henri
Bat-21	Anderson, William C.
Bucher: My Story	Bucher, Lloyd M.
The Dirks Escape	Rimmer, Brandon C.
Escape	Lipman & Purvis
Five Years to Freedom	Rowe, James N.
I Was a Slave in Russia	Noble, John
The Last Voyage of the U.S.S. Pueblo	Brant, Ed
The Long Walk	Rawicz, Slavomir
Man's Search for Meaning	Frankl, Victor E.
No Surrender	Onada, Hirdo
Papillon	Charriere, Henri
The Raft	Trumbull, Robert
Seven Years in Hanoi	Chesley, Larry
The Survivors	DesPres, Terrence
Three Came Home	Kieth, Agnes, Newton
We Die Alone	Howarth, David
When Hell was in Session	Denton, Jeremiah A.

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

The Application of Multiple Methods In Festivals and Special Events

Linda S. Ralston, University of Utah

Festivals and special events have been the subject of considerable research during the past decade, primarily in the area of economic impact. Many of these studies have been innovative in their sampling techniques and survey instrumentation due to a lack of a history regarding accepted sampling regimes in multiple-entrance, multiple-day festival settings. The de-emphasis of methodology in many of the subsequent publications of these "economic impact" studies appears to delay the inception of a tradition in sociologically-based festival research techniques. The purpose of this study was to address the methodological perspective of research techniques conducted in festivals with either controlled access or open access.

During 1990, three events were selected to field test the validity of data collection procedures and survey instrumentation. One survey site at each festival (the main gate) was used as a control. Within each event two additional (non-gated) survey sites were selected to simulate open access conditions. By using both gated and non-gated survey sites at each festival, it was possible to test for significant differences between respondents at an individual festival. Additionally, it was possible to compare respondents across festivals using the same methodology and survey questions.

Utilizing a generic pool of questions the questionnaires for each event were tailored to address the information needs of the individual community/event. Site analyses were conducted with community representatives as related to traffic flow and activity scheduling. A systematic 1-in-k sampling design was developed (Schaeffer, Mendenhall and Ott, 1986). The schedule of times and data collection points were randomly selected. The sampling plan varied slightly for each event but primarily required that the questionnaire be distributed to every nth person.

Overall, the three events achieved a 62% response rate with 598 usable responses. Luling Thump received a 59% response (355 distributed/211 returned), Anahuac Gatorfest received a 57% response (390 distributed/223 returned) and Temple Tractor Meet achieved a 78% response (211 distributed/164 returned). Through the use of a general linear model, the responses to repeated questions from each of the surveys were compared between events, in addition to a comparison of responses within each festival segmented by data collection site. Overall, there were no significant differences observed on 28 of the questions used at each of the three festivals; therefore, verifying the distribution methods for use at gated or non-gated events. A comparison of responses across the three events were found to converge (i.e. were not significantly different) on 28 of 30 questions which appeared on each of the questionnaires. These results represent a successful attempt at obtaining convergent results on a majority of question presented to festival visitors through the use of multiple methods.

Assessing the Net Economic Impact of a Large Scale Special Event

Douglas M. Turco, Illinois State University

Special events are a phenomenon shared by numerous communities throughout the country and generally make a positive contribution to the local economy. To be able to determine the economic impact of festivals, fairs, tournaments, concerts, and shows is of great value to both public and private groups in any town. Economic gain may be the deciding factor for the future provision of these staged tourist attractions. The specific methods used to accurately assess the economic impact of special events have received considerable attention in the literature, contributing to the development of a refined economic impact methodology.

Relatively few studies, however, have applied these valid procedures in aggregate. This research details the economic impact assessment model developed and applied to the 1990 Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta. Expenditure questionnaires were developed and exit interviews conducted with a random sample of patrons (N=598) to determine patron spending behavior in the local economy (Bernalillo County). Tax revenues accruing to state and local governments were also estimated. Issues specifically addressed by the model include the "vendor factor," sample and recall bias, and switching studies and research recommendations are discussed with direct implications to recreation and tourism researchers and practitioners.

Job Announcement Content Analysis In Commercial Recreation and Tourism

John Crossley, University of Utah

Students in commercial recreation and tourism seek honest answers to the proverbial question: "What kinds of jobs are available for me?" To answer this question, a content analysis was conducted of every commercial recreation and tourism industry position that was listed in the primary newspaper of the Salt Lake area for an entire year. It can be argued that the newspaper classified section does not list every position vacancy within a community. However, even if the newspaper lists only half of the available jobs, it is probably the most comprehensive sample of jobs available.

Content analysis is a research methodology that utilizes a set of procedures to make valid inferences from a body of information. The central idea is that the numerous words of the information source are classified into much fewer content descriptions. The classified data can then be quantitatively analyzed. Employment notices from the Sunday newspaper were screened for one full year. Every job notice that related directly to the commercial recreation and tourism industry was initially considered. Upon review, several types of job notices were deleted from the study: part-time or short seasonal positions, announcements repeated from past weeks, and positions not in the scope of the department's academic program. Information from the remaining job announcements was classified into content categories and recorded for analysis.

A total of 433 commercial recreation and tourism job announcements were included in the content analysis. These announcements covered approximately 553 individual positions. Most (87.8%) of the announcements were for in-state locations. The hotel industry dominated the job market, accounting for 58% of the announcements. There were however, 32 additional types of employers, and a total of 73 different position titles. Fully 72% of all the announcements were advertised under just three key words: hotel, sales, and manager (or management). Unfortunately, there were more "pre-professional" positions listed than "entry level", or "supervisory/management" level positions. Only 3.5% of the announcements listed any degree requirement, but few of the announcements listed details about the job duties or requirements.

The importance of this study transcends the basic findings about the job market in one particular locale. Of greater value is the job announcement content analysis system developed for this study. Commercial recreation and tourism educators could conduct a similar study for their own community. A study of this type can provide an organized overview of the commercial recreation and tourism job market in a given locale. This information will be greatly appreciated by students who seek realistic answers to their questions about career opportunities. They will see the tremendous diversity of the industry and the variety of positions available.

An Investigation of the Displacement Hypothesis In Outdoor Recreation

A. Joseph Arave, University of Utah

If users of outdoor recreation areas become dissatisfied with existing conditions due to crowding, degradation, or managerial actions, there are several ways in which they may respond. One response may be to reevaluate the experience (Shelby & Heberlein 1986) by readjusting attitudes or expectations. Another response is based upon cognitive dissonance theory in which the user denies the dissatisfaction in order to justify the expense of time, money and effort to obtain an enjoyable recreation experience (Probst & Lime, 1982). These types of responses represent those which are psychological in nature.

Other overt responses which may be behavioral in nature might include going to a more remote part of the setting (e.g. choosing a not so popular trail, or camping further away from a lake), or moving away from the setting completely and looking for new areas, which the user may perceive as more in line with their values. Temporal adjustments may also be made wherein the recreationist perceiving crowded conditions may choose to visit an area only on weekdays, or during off seasons of the year.

When users of outdoor recreation areas make behavioral adjustments, either spatial or temporal, they are subsequently replaced by other users whose definition of crowding may be more in line with existing conditions. This phenomenon, known as displacement has been describer as a change in behavior patterns as a result of negative changes in the recreation setting. One of the main problems in studying displacement is that changes in recreation behavior patterns may be a result of positive influences as well as negative. Thus it is possible for patterns of use to look like displacement, when they actually represent something else.

This study examines the displacement hypothesis by looking at the recreation use history of individuals committed in varying degrees to outdoor recreation. Specifically, this study, through the application of a qualitative method, seeks to examine recreation behavior patterns of these individuals, identify changes in those patterns, and examine the variety of motivations for those changes.

In depth, informal interviews were conducted with twenty individuals drawn primarily from the membership of the Wasatch Mountain Club. The interviews were transcribed, coded, and analyzed according to the research questions, and Drivers (Driver & Brown, 1978) hierarch of recreation demand. Emergent themes were also identified. Analysis of the interviews suggest that 1) a pre-displacement, or priori form of displacement is common among outdoor recreationist; 2) convenience factors, such as economies of time, distance, money, etc. and the influence of friends and family, play a large role in patterns of recreation behavior; 3) many major changes in recreation behavior patterns are life-stage related; and 4) displacement, as formerly defined occurs very seldom with individual recreationists, and is probably not a reason for the absence of dissatisfaction among outdoor recreationists.

Visual Screening and Information Access In Visual Preferences for Near-View Forest Scenes

Edward J. Ruddell, University of Utah

Quantitative studies of scenic beauty judgments of near-view forest environments typically have been derived from one of two psychological traditions of environmental perception research. Each tradition has complementary strengths and weaknesses. The strength of the psychophysical approach lies in its ability to relate changes in manageable site characteristics associated with limited scenic beauty judgments. The major limitation of the psychophysical approach has been incorporation of predictor variables designed for purposes other that the theoretical explanation of scenic beauty perceptions. The strength of the psychological approach has been the emphasis placed on theoretical explanations for scenic beauty judgements. The most serious limitation of the approach is that it often fails to provide useful results within the context of predicting aesthetic impacts of landscape management.

This paper reports on an analysis combining the strong points of both the psychophysical and psychological approaches to environmental preference research. The psychological approach is used to deduce a variable (visual penetration) which possesses measurement properties suitable for analysis within the psychophysical tradition. Visual penetration was found to be a significant contributor to explained variance in scenic beauty judgements of near-view forest scenes. In addition, visual penetration was found to be the most important in accounting for scenic beauty evaluations among a set of measures more typical of psychophysical models.

An Examination of the Physiological Response of Institutionalized Older Adult Residents to Television Content

Connie Scholten, University of Utah

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of different types of television content on the autonomic arousal of institutionalized older adults. Subjects were three institutionalized older adults with multiple disabilities who are unable to take care of most of their activities of daily living (ADL's). Autonomic arousal was measured by a skin conductance monitor interfaced with a portable computer. Subjects' skin conductance levels were monitored under conditions of no television and four selected programs of 2- to 4-minute segments each.

Based on interviews and assessment data, specific segments were identified that were thought to represent some component of the self of each subject. Skin conductance data were recorded continuously and averaged into 3-second intervals. Data were analysed thorough examination of graphs and through generalised lease squares (GLS) regression. Results suggest that self affirming video content may enhance individuals' levels of autonomic arousal if a strong sense of self exists. In addition, results revealed that autonomic arousal may be enhanced by talking with subjects while viewing television and that a blank screen may enhance arousal thorough dissonance or through the creation of expectancies about the video content to be viewed.

Explanation of Variance in Daily Experience Using the Flow Model

Gary D. Ellis, University of Utah
Judith E. Voelkl, University of Illinois
Catherine Morris, University of Utah

Over the past several years, researchers have used data from the experience sampling method to operationalize flow and non-flow experience in people's daily lives, as indicated by the theory of optimal experiences (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). The challenge-skill ratio that is central to that theory has been found to explain only a small portion of the variance of measures of subjective experience (e.g., affect, arousal). In the present study, we review potential factors that may limit the percentage of variance explained in studies of the flow phenomenon, propose alternative methods of analysis, and compare the explanatory power of difference approaches to analysis using two separate data sets.

In study 1, we used data from a sample of nursing home residents to examine the consequences of removing the effects of individual differences that results from standardizing data within subjects prior to analysis and we contrasted the original flow model with Csikszentmihalyi's (1988) reformulated flow model.

In study 2, we used a sample of experiences from University students to assess the impact of individual differences and affirmation of self on measures of affect and intrinsic motivation. Results of Study 1 revealed that the person variable contributed 20% to the explanation of variance in affect and that more variance in affect could be explained using the original flow model than the reformulated flow model. Study 2 results revealed that affirmation of self accounted for a substantial portion of the variance in the measures of experience and that, contrary to flow theory but consistent with previous research, the challenge/skill context accounted for inconsequential amounts of variance.